



**University of
Zurich**^{UZH}

**Zurich Open Repository and
Archive**

University of Zurich
University Library
Strickhofstrasse 39
CH-8057 Zurich
www.zora.uzh.ch

Year: 2011

Organometallic anticancer compounds

Gasser, Gilles ; Ott, Ingo ; Metzler-Nolte, Nils

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1021/jm100020w>

Posted at the Zurich Open Repository and Archive, University of Zurich

ZORA URL: <https://doi.org/10.5167/uzh-60257>

Journal Article

Accepted Version

Originally published at:

Gasser, Gilles; Ott, Ingo; Metzler-Nolte, Nils (2011). Organometallic anticancer compounds. *Journal of Medicinal Chemistry*, 54(1):3-25.

DOI: <https://doi.org/10.1021/jm100020w>

Organometallic Anticancer Compounds

Gilles Gasser,^{,a,c} Ingo Ott^{*,b} and Nils Metzler-Nolte^{*,c}*

^a Institute of Inorganic Chemistry, University of Zurich, Winterthurerstrasse 190, CH-8057 Zurich, Switzerland; ^b Institute of Pharmaceutical Chemistry, Technische Universität Braunschweig, Beethovenstrasse 55, 38106 Braunschweig, Germany; ^c Department of Inorganic Chemistry I – Bioinorganic Chemistry, Faculty of Chemistry and Biochemistry, Ruhr-University Bochum, Universitätsstrasse 150, 44801 Bochum, Germany.

RECEIVED DATE (to be automatically inserted after your manuscript is accepted if required according to the journal that you are submitting your paper to)

* Corresponding authors. Email: gilles.gasser@aci.uzh.ch. WWW: www.gassergroup.com. Phone: +41(0)44 635 - 4611. Fax: +41(0)44 635 - 6803. Email: ingo.ott@tu-bs.de. WWW : www.pharmchem.tu-bs.de/forschung/ott/. Phone : +49 (0)531 - 391 2743. Fax. +49 (0)531 - 391 8456. Email: nils.metzler-nolte@rub.de. WWW : www.rub.de/ac1. Phone: +49 (0)234 - 32 28152. Fax: +49 (0)234 - 32 14378.

Keywords: Bioorganometallic Chemistry, Medicinal Inorganic Chemistry, Medicinal Organometallic Chemistry, Metal-Based Drugs, Structure-Activity Relationship (SAR), Anticancer Compounds

Abbreviations: AAS: Atomic Absorption Spectrometry – acac: acetylacetonato - bip: biphenyl - BNCT: Boron Neutron Capture Therapy – BSA: Bovine Serum Albumin - Cat B: Cathepsin – CDK: Cyclin-Dependent Kinase - cGMP: 3',5'-cyclic monophosphate – CHO: Chinese Hamster Ovary – CMIA; Carbonyl Metallo Immuno Assay - CORM: Carbon Monoxide Releasing Molecule - Cp: Cyclopentadienyl – Cp*: pentamethyl-cyclopentadienyl – CQ: Chloroquine – CQDP: chloroquine diphosphate – dppf: 1,1'-bis(diphenylphosphino)ferrocene - EA: Ethacrynic Acid – en: ethylenediamine – FR: Folate Receptor – GR: Glutathione Reductase - GSH: Glutathione - GST: Glutathione Transferase – ICP-MS: Inductively Coupled Plasma Mass Spectrometry - MDR: Multi-Drug Resistance – MMR: Mismatch Repair - MudPIT: Multidimensional Protein Identification Technology (MudPIT) – MS: Mass Spectrometry – NHC: N-heterocyclic carbene – NSAID: Non-Steroidal Anti-Inflammatory Drug - *o*-bqdi: *o*-benzoquinonediimine – *o*-pda: *o*-phenylenediamine – PDT: Photodynamic Therapy - Pgp: P-glycoprotein - pta: 1,3,4-triaza-7-phosphatricyclo-[3.3.1.1]decane – ROS: Reactive Oxygen Species - SAR: Structure Activity Relationship - SERM: Selective Estrogen Receptor Modulator – TRAP: Telomeric Repeat Amplification Protocol - TrxR: Thioredoxin Reductase.

Introduction

The quest for alternative drugs to the well-known cisplatin and its derivatives, which are still used in more than 50% of the treatment regimes for patients suffering from cancer, is highly needed.^{1, 2} Indeed, despite their tremendous success, these platinum compounds suffer from two main disadvantages: they are inefficient against platinum-resistant tumors, and they have severe side-effects such as nephrotoxicity. The latter drawback is the consequence of the fact that the ultimate target of these drugs is ubiquitous: It is generally accepted that Pt anticancer drugs target DNA, which is obviously present in *all* cells.^{3, 4} Furthermore, as a consequence of its particular chemical structure, cisplatin in particular offers little possibility for rational improvements to increase its tumor-specificity and thereby reduce undesired side effects.

In this context, organometallic compounds, which are defined as metal complexes containing at least one direct, covalent metal-carbon bond, have recently been found to be promising anticancer drug candidates. Organometallics have a great structural variety (ranging from linear to octahedral and even beyond), far more diverse stereochemistry than organic compounds (for an octahedral complex with six different ligands, 30 stereoisomers exist!), and, by rational ligand design, provide control over key kinetic properties (such as hydrolysis rate of ligands). Furthermore, they are kinetically stable, usually uncharged, relatively lipophilic and their metal atom is in a low oxidation state. Due to these fundamental differences compared to “classical coordination metal complexes”, organometallics offer new opportunities in the design of novel classes of medicinal compounds, potentially with new metal-specific modes of action. Interestingly, all the typical classes of organometallics such as metallocenes, half-sandwich, carbene-, CO- or π -ligands, which have been widely used for catalysis or biosensing purposes, have now also found application in medicinal chemistry (see Figure 1 for an overview of these typical classes of organometallics).

In this perspective article, we report on the recent advances in the discovery of organometallics with proven anti-proliferative activity. We are emphasizing those compounds, where efforts have been made

to identify their molecular target and mode of action by biochemical or cell biology studies. This perspective covers more classes of compounds and in more detail than a recent tutorial review by Hartinger and Dyson.⁵ Furthermore, whereas recent reviews and book contributions attest to the rapid development of bioorganometallic chemistry in general,^{6, 7} this perspective focuses on their potential application as anticancer chemotherapeutics. Another very recent review article makes an attempt to categorize inorganic anticancer drug candidates by their mode of action.⁸ We should mention that a full description of all currently investigated types of compounds is hardly possible any more in a concise review. For example, a particularly promising class of organometallic anticancer compounds, namely radiolabeled organometallics, has been omitted for space limitations. Recent developments of such compounds have been reviewed in detail by Alberto.⁹

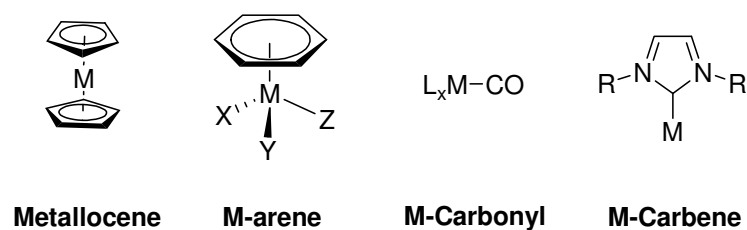
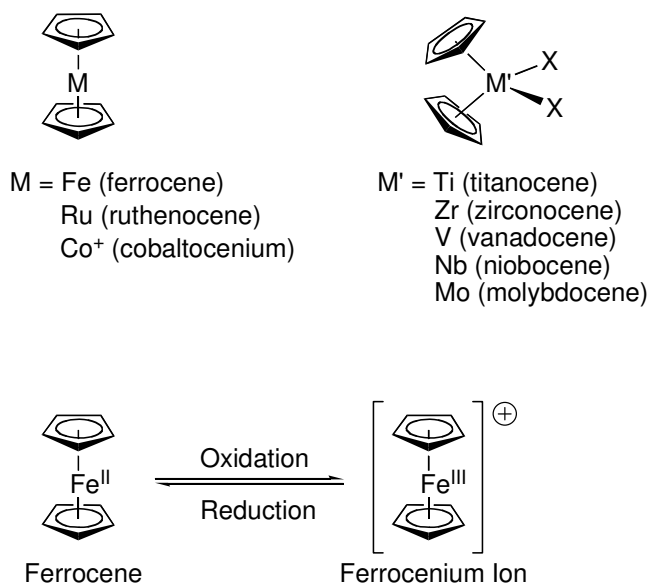


Figure 1. Summary of the typical classes of organometallic compounds used in medicinal chemistry.

Metalloenes. Metalloenes is the name for compounds with two π -bonded cyclopentadienyl (Cp) ligands on a metal atom. Research into this class of compounds started in 1952 with the discovery of ferrocene (bis-cyclopentadienyl iron, Cp_2Fe) and the elucidation of its C_5 -symmetric structure with two equivalent, π -bonded Cp rings. Due to their symmetrical structure, such compounds are also frequently referred to as "sandwich complexes". Today, other metal complexes with cyclic π -perimeters are also sometimes named metalloenes. Compounds with only one π -perimeter are classified as "half-sandwich metalloenes", such as the Ru(arene) complexes discussed below in some of the following sections of this perspective. Structurally, the bis-cyclopentadienyl complexes can be classified into two classes, namely the "classical" ones with parallel Cp rings and the "bent" metalloenes, which have other ligands bonded to the metal in addition to the Cp rings (Scheme 1). Chemically sufficiently robust classical metalloenes for medicinal applications contain metals from the iron and cobalt triad, with Fe, Ru and Co being relevant to this article. The bent metalloenes typically comprise metals from the earlier transition metals, most importantly Ti, Zr, V, Nb, Mo in a medicinal context. Interestingly, all medicinally important bent metalloenes have a *cis*-dihalide motif as depicted in Scheme 1, which is similar to the *cis*-dichloro motif of the well-established anticancer drug cisplatin. This resemblance has spurred interest in metalloenes in the early days of medicinal inorganic chemistry, particularly through the work of Köpf and Köpf-Maier.¹⁰⁻¹²



Scheme 1. Top row: Classical metallocenes with parallel Cp rings (left) and bent metallocenes (right) with the medically relevant metals indicated. Below: Reversible oxidation chemistry of ferrocene.

Historically, however, the medicinal properties of ferrocene were previously investigated as it was the first organometallic compound for which anti-proliferative properties were reported.¹³ This report sparked the development of organometallic anticancer compounds.^{14, 15} Ferrocene by itself is not a particularly toxic compound. It can be injected, inhaled, or taken orally without causing major health problems. Like most xenobiotics, it is degraded in the liver by cytochromes. Because of its aromatic character, a metabolism related to benzene had been expected and was indeed found experimentally. As shown in experiments with rats that were orally given a single dose of ferrocene in sesame oil, ferrocene is enzymatically hydroxylated in the liver and urinally excreted in the form of conjugates to sulphate (minor product) and glucuronic acid as the main product.¹⁶ *In vitro*, intact liver microsomes, NADPH and molecular oxygen were found necessary for the hydroxylation of ferrocene. This process was inhibited *in vitro* by CO, but significantly stimulated *in vivo* by pre-treatment of the rats with phenobarbital. These findings give a conclusive evidence that the hydroxylation of ferrocene is carried out by cytochrome P₄₅₀ enzymes, much like benzene and many other hydrocarbons are. Although such

studies have hardly been carried out on other organometallic complexes, it is not unreasonable to assume that a similar fate is experienced by several of the metal-based drugs discussed in this article, at least by those who possess π -bonded (quasi-aromatic) ligands. On the other hand, hydroxyferrocene is rather unstable and decomposes in aqueous solution, finally releasing solvated iron atoms. Indeed, ferrocene derivatives have been proposed as anti-anaemics and one such compound, ferrocerone, was clinically approved in the USSR. To the best of our knowledge, this compound was the first marketed transition organo-metal drug. In this context, it is worth mentioning that another ferrocene-containing compound, which is a close derivative of chloroquine, has successfully passed clinical phase II trials as an anti-malarial drug candidate (ferroquine, **1**, Figure 2).^{17, 18} This compound is now undergoing field testing and may reach approval as a new anti-malarial drug in the near future. Ferroquine has an activity similar to chloroquine on the malaria parasite *P. falciparum*, but most notably is similarly active against chloroquine-resistant *P. falciparum* strains. It has been discussed that changes in lipophilicity, but possibly also some redox-activation, could be responsible for the unexpected activity of this ferrocene anti-malarial.¹⁸ Following the success of ferroquine, many other organometallic anti-malarials were synthesized and tested, but as yet with lesser success.

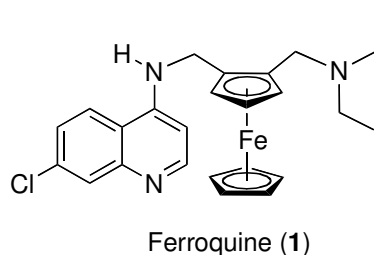


Figure 2. Ferroquine (**1**) is presently the most advanced organometallic drug candidate and about to enter phase III clinical trials as an anti-malarial drug.

The toxicity of ferrocene was also tested in beagle dogs which were fed up to 300 mg kg⁻¹ per day for six months, or even 1 g kg⁻¹ up to three months.¹⁹ While no acute toxicity or even deaths were observed,

massive Fe overload was diagnosed. However, the dogs recovered afterwards. The ferrocene-induced hepatic Fe overload could be reduced after the removal of large quantities of Fe by repeated venesection.¹⁹

Ferrocene can undergo a one-electron oxidation, yielding the ferrocenium cation (see Scheme 1, bottom). This cation is rather stable and the redox reaction is reversible for most ferrocene derivatives. Simple ferrocenium salts were the first iron compounds for which an anti-proliferative effect on certain types of cancer cells was demonstrated.¹³ The mechanism of action is still uncertain. Nuclear DNA, cell membrane, and the enzyme topoisomerase II^{20, 21} were proposed as possible targets. More precisely, Osella *et al.* showed that ferrocenium salts may generate hydroxyl radicals in physiological solutions.²² An earlier report suggests that these radicals damage the DNA in a Fenton-type reaction.²³ The cytotoxic effect of decamethylferrocenium tetrafluoroborate ($\text{Cp}^*_2\text{FeBF}_4$, Cp^* = pentamethylcyclopentadienyl) was correlated to the production of 8-oxoguanine, the initial product of DNA oxidation. Direct evidence for hydroxyl and superoxide radicals stems from ESR and spin-trapping experiments. In one of the few studies of this kind, a synergistic effect between $\text{Cp}^*_2\text{FeBF}_4$ and the iron-dependent anti-tumor drug bleomycin was observed.²⁴ Finally, the cell membrane may be the cellular target similar to the peroxidation of membrane lipids which is the consequence of excess hepatic iron. A more detailed review on the physiological chemistry of ferrocene and the anti-proliferative properties of ferrocene or ferrocenium alone has recently been given elsewhere.²⁵

Neuse *et al.* used an interesting approach to enhance the cytotoxicity of ferrocene. They bound ferrocene to polymeric supports such as poly-aspartamide.²⁶⁻³⁰ The underlying idea is that enhanced water solubility may be a crucial factor for the activity of ferrocene. This assumption is confirmed by the fact that the cytotoxicity of ferricenium salts depends greatly on the nature of the counterion. Indeed, the poorly soluble heptamolybdate is inactive while ferricenium salts with good aqueous solubility such as the picrate and trichloroacetate display high anti-tumour activity.¹³ It must be noted that smaller ferrocenyl polyamines were also tested by Brynes and co-workers at almost the same time, but with

limited success.³¹ The work on polymer-bound ferrocene as anticancer drugs has recently been reviewed by Neuse.³²

Numerous ferrocene derivatives have been tested for anti-proliferative purposes.³³⁻³⁸ Among those, a ferrocene-acridine conjugate was found to be highly cytotoxic. The acridine moiety served to bring the ferrocene close to DNA by intercalation.³⁶ Wagner and co-workers investigated the activity of borylated ferrocenes in Boron Neutron Capture Therapy (BNCT)³⁴ and found that their compounds exhibit an interesting organ distribution. One derivative in particular was found to penetrate the blood-brain barrier (BBB), which is of high importance for the treatment of brain tumors. Schmalz and co-workers synthesised several nucleoside analogues of ferrocene³⁹ (e.g. **2** in Figure 3) with LD₅₀ values in the low μ M range, although not as high as the iron-tricarbonyl nucleoside analogues from the same group (see also section on Metal carbonyl complexes below).^{40, 41} No molecular target has been proposed so far for **2**, but the structure makes protein targets, maybe in RNA / DNA synthesis or repair pathways, likely candidates.

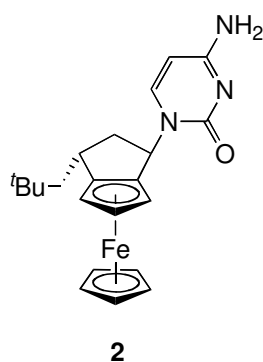


Figure 3. A nucleoside analogue of ferrocene.

In more general terms, redox activity is a property that is not unique to metal compounds, but frequently encountered in those. It is thus interesting to correlate the redox properties of metal compounds with electron transfer, oxidative stress, the formation of reactive oxygen species, and generally the redox status of cells.^{33, 42} While it is difficult to determine the exact "redox potential" or

even "redox status" of a whole cell, the correlation between the redox activity of metal complexes and their anti-proliferative properties has been only tentatively investigated. However, a mechanism whereby redox activation induces anticancer activity in ferrocene derivatives has recently been suggested by Jaouen and co-workers.⁴² They substituted phenyl rings in established drugs and natural products by ferrocene groups.⁴³ Most significantly, this work has uncovered a group of derivatives of the anticancer drug tamoxifen, called ferrocifens by Jaouen's group.^{42, 44} Tamoxifen (**3** in Figure 4) is the front-line chemotherapeutic agent for patients with hormone-dependent breast cancer. Its active metabolite is hydroxy-tamoxifen (**4** in Figure 4). In general, breast tumours can be divided into two groups depending on the presence (ER(+)) or absence (ER(-)) of the estrogen receptor. About two thirds of all cases belong to the ER(+) type, rendering them susceptible to hormone therapy by selective estrogen receptor modulators (SERMs) such as tamoxifen, and giving the patients significantly improved chances for successful treatment compared to the ER(-) group of patients.⁴² The antiproliferative action of tamoxifen arises from the competitive binding to ER α subtype, thus repressing estradiol-mediated DNA transcription in the tumor tissue. Unfortunately, expression of the ER α may become down-regulated under tamoxifen treatment, turning the drug ineffective.

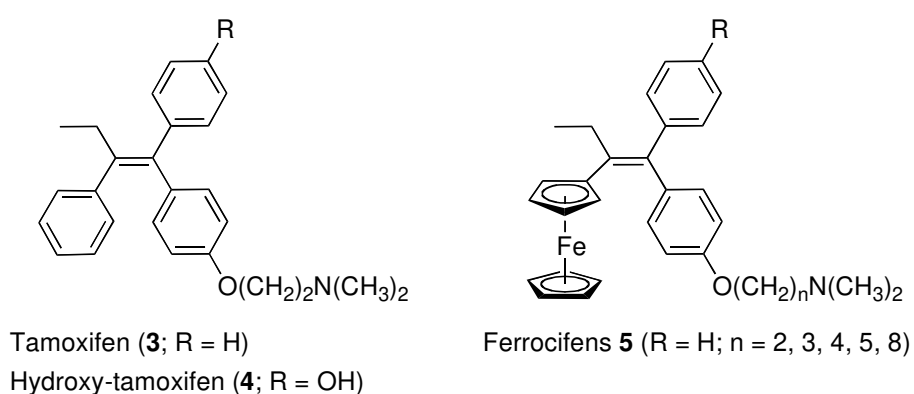
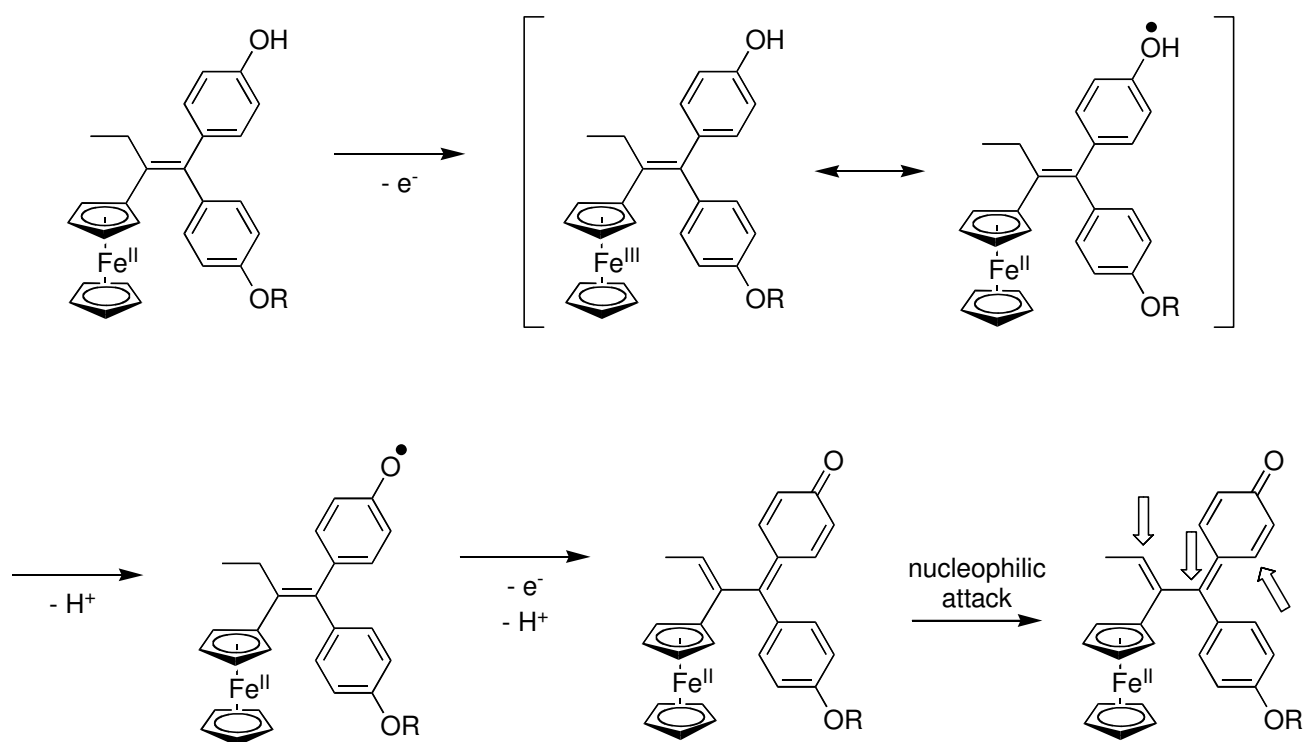


Figure 4. Tamoxifens and ferrocifens. The most active derivative of **5** with n = 4 is referred to as *the* ferrocifen.

It is believed that the same principle explains the activity of ferrocifens (**5**) against ER(+) cancer cell lines. Some SARs were derived from a group of ferrocene derivatives of tamoxifen as shown in Figure 4. Replacement of the phenyl group by ferrocene reduces receptor affinity to about 40 %. Increasing the length of the dimethylamino-alkyl chain has an adverse effect on receptor binding. In addition, it also changes the bioavailability and determines whether estrogenic or anti-estrogenic activity is observed in animal experiments. It appears that an optimum value is around $n = 4$. While the *Z* isomers bind more strongly to the ER α than the *E* isomers in *in vitro* tests, there is rapid isomerization under physiological conditions. Finally, ferrocifens were shown to be effective anti-estrogens in MCF-7 breast cancer cell lines (ER(+)) and against estrogen-dependent tumour xenografts in nude mice.

Surprisingly, however, compound **5** with $n = 4$ was shown to be active against the ER(-) MDA-MB231 tumour cell line, which lacks the ER α and is hence not susceptible to treatment with tamoxifens. This indicates a new and different mode of action for **5**. Interestingly, the ruthenocene analogue of **5** also acts as an antiestrogen in ER(+) breast cancer cells but lacks the antiproliferative effect of ferrocifen against ER(-) cell lines.⁴⁵ Other organometallic fragments in place of the ferrocenyl group were also tested, but were found to be inactive.^{44, 46} This suggests a dual mode of action for ferrocifen. In addition to tamoxifen-like binding to the ER α receptor, the second pathway must critically depend on the properties of ferrocene. In an elegant study, redox activation has been proposed as the second mode of action.⁴⁷ The active metabolite hydroxyferrocifen is readily oxidized, yielding a quinone methide intermediate. This intermediate is activated for nucleophilic attack by nucleophiles. Quinone methides of the metal-free 4-hydroxytamoxifen are known to be stable for hours under physiological conditions. Adducts of such tamoxifen metabolites with glutathione and nucleobases are thought to be responsible for its general toxicity and mutagenic potential. It is now proposed that related chemistry applies to the activated ferrocifens. Extensive SAR studies⁴⁸⁻⁵³ in correlation with electrochemical properties^{52, 54-56} support this hypothesis. Moreover, production of reactive oxygen

species has been demonstrated in cell lines treated with ferrocifen and derivatives.⁵⁷ In this mode of action, which is summarized in Scheme 2, the metallocenes serves as a "redox antenna". It is particularly noteworthy that redox activity of the metallocene is the key for additional biological activity that exceeds that of a purely organic analogue. Once this redox-activation mode of action was established, it is clearly not dependent on the tamoxifen-related substructure. Recently, the same group has presented work on ferrocenyl diphenols and unconjugated phenol derivatives which also have good anti-proliferative activity, presumably via a related mechanism of activation and formation of similar intermediates.^{58, 59}



Scheme 2. Redox activation of ferrocifens as proposed by Jaouen and co-workers. The ferrocene serves as a "redox antenna", following oxidation and proton abstraction a quinone methide is formed, which is readily attacked by nucleophiles at the positions indicated by arrows.

In order to advance the use of ferrocifens towards clinical studies, several formulation studies were performed using nanoparticles,⁶⁰ lipid nanocapsules,^{61, 62} and cyclodextrins.⁶³ Further work from the same group includes, beyond synthesis, at least a preliminary testing of the anti-proliferative activity of ferrocene derivatives of several classes of compounds, i. e. curcuminoids,⁶⁴ androgen derivatives⁶⁵ and anti-androgens derived from the nilutamide lead structure,⁶⁶ indolones,⁶⁷ and ferrocenophane polyphenols.⁶⁸

For the bent metallocene dihalides, SARs were established for the halides and substitution of the Cp rings^{11, 14, 15, 69} and model studies of such compounds with amino acids, nucleic acids, proteins and blood plasma were performed.⁷⁰ Titanium compounds were most active, and titanocene dichloride has even entered clinical trials.⁷¹ Although very promising in animal models, the clinical response was not encouraging enough to justify continuing trials – i.e. titanocene dichloride clinical trials were recently abandoned. Furthermore, due to its decomposition and low solubility in water, there were also problems with the formulation of the drug. Earlier work investigated DNA interaction, induction of apoptosis and topoisomerase inhibition as possible modes of action.⁷²⁻⁷⁴

Despite the resemblance of titanocene dichloride with cisplatin, there has never been a clear evidence of an identical mode of action – i.e. binding to DNA and eventually apoptosis of the cancer cell.⁴ Instead, binding of the Ti^{4+} cation to transferrin following complete hydrolysis of Cp_2TiCl_2 was proposed,⁷⁵ and even a stimulatory effect of aqueous Ti species on hormone-dependent breast cancer cells was observed.⁴⁶ From an inorganic point of view however, the existence of simple hydrated Ti^{4+} cations is highly unlikely in aqueous solution at pH 7, as oligomeric species and eventually insoluble titanium dioxide will form. A recent computational study on a benzyl-substituted titanocene (titanocene Y (**6**), Figure 5) suggests that the $\text{Cp(R)}_2\text{Ti}^{2+}$ dication binds to a DNA phosphate group, with additional interactions stabilizing the binding to DNA.⁷⁶ Although this result is in accord with chemical intuition,

i.e. the hard Ti cation binding to anionic oxygen atoms, it is a single point computation assuming DNA as the molecular target. No protein targets were so far considered for the bent metallocenes.

The two main problems of the titanocene dihalides, i.e. poor aqueous solubility and hydrolytic instability were both addressed in recent years by chemical synthesis. To increase aqueous solubility, amino-substituted bent metallocenes were successfully prepared.⁷⁷ The two Cp rings are covalently linked together in *ansa*-titanocenes and indeed, such compounds exhibit improved hydrolytic stability.⁷⁸⁷⁹ Both groups of compounds show promising biological activity. The group of Tacke has developed a versatile synthetic access to Cp-substituted bent metallocenes via the fulvene route. This approach yields unbridged (via hydrido-lithiation) as well as *ansa*-bridged metallocenes (via carbo-lithiation).⁸⁰ *In vitro* cytotoxicity tests were performed for several derivatives. A screen against 36 human tumor cell lines of 14 different tumor types on the derivatives **6** - **8** (termed titanocenes Y, X and Z, Figure 5) revealed the *p*-methoxy-benzyl substituted titanocene Y (**6**) as the most active derivative. Even more interesting, this compound showed very good activity against renal cell cancer and pleura mesothelioma cell lines, for which no effective chemotherapeutic agents are currently available.⁸¹ Further testing of this compound was performed, including tests against freshly explanted tumors^{82, 83} and *in vivo* tests against xenografted renal cancer (Caki-1),⁸⁴ prostate cancer (PC-3),⁸⁵ and breast tumor (MCF-7) in mice.⁸² Mechanistic studies particularly, but not exclusively, on titanocene Y revealed anti-angiogenic effects but no myelosuppression,⁸⁶ activation of the immune system, and induction of apoptosis via caspases 3 and 7, but not caspase-8.^{87, 88} This is a desirable combination of properties for anticancer drugs. In an obvious extension of their work and inspired by second-generation platinum drugs, the Tacke group has recently replaced the two chloride ligands on titanocene Y by carboxylate groups to yield equally active compounds with possibly even more favourable pharmacokinetics.^{89, 90}

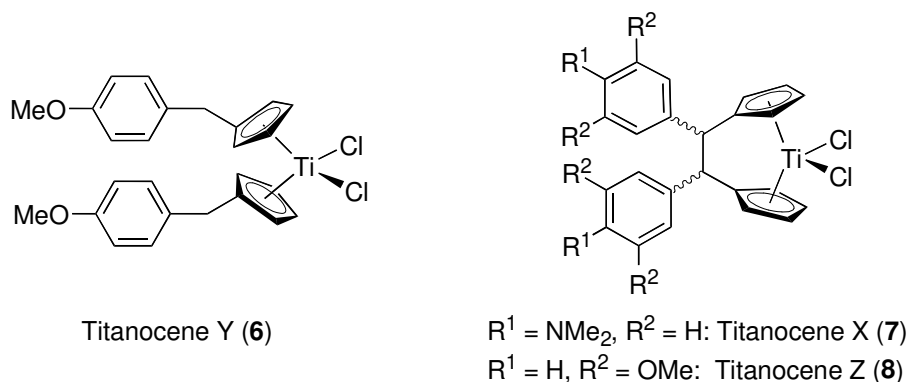


Figure 5. Titanocene Y (**6**), and the ansa-bridged derivatives titanocenes X (**7**) and Z (**8**).

While Cp-substituted vanadocenes, zirconocenes, and even stannocenes were recently evaluated,⁹¹⁻⁹⁴ more in-depth research has concentrated on molybdocene derivatives as the most promising alternative to Cp₂TiCl₂. Again with relation to cisplatin, DNA was envisaged as the target and in early work, several X-ray structures with the Cp₂Mo fragment coordinated to nucleobases were obtained.⁹⁵⁻⁹⁷ Also early on, comparative hydrolysis studies of several bent metallocene dihalides were performed which identified Cp₂MoCl₂ as one of the most stable simple metallocenes. Unlike Cp₂TiCl₂, the Cp rings in the Mo derivative are less prone to hydrolysis. Furthermore, extensive spectroscopic studies, mainly by ¹H and ³¹P NMR, were carried out in solution to assess the binding mode of molybdocene dichloride with DNA.^{96, 98-100} In more recent work, Harding and co-workers investigated cellular uptake and intracellular localization of several bent metallocenes dihalides by X-ray fluorescence.^{101, 102} Only low levels of Ti and V were detected inside cells, and only Mo seemed to accumulate in significant amounts in the cellular nuclei (Figure 6). All together, these findings agree well with the notion that all metallocenes have a different biological profile.

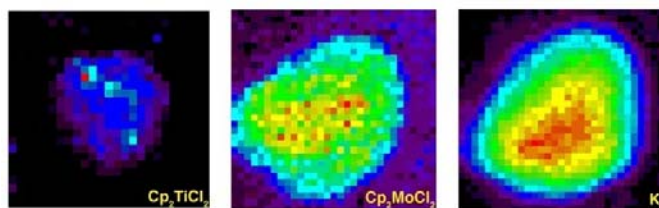
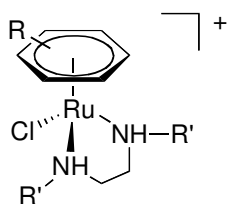


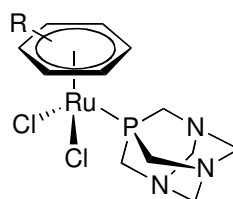
Figure 5. Intracellular distribution of Mo (from Cp_2MoCl_2), Ti (from Cp_2TiCl_2) and K as shown by X-ray fluorescence microscopy.

Organometallic Ruthenium half-sandwich complexes. The idea of using ruthenium-containing organometallics as anticancer agents was first developed by Tochter *et al.*¹⁰³ before being intensively investigated in the Sadler and Dyson research groups. It was initially anticipated that the binding of *all* ruthenium compounds to DNA was the main reason for their anticancer effect, similarly to the platinum derivatives, i.e - the coordination of the metal centre to DNA causes structural modifications, which would ultimately lead to the induction of apoptosis. Indeed, the ability of ruthenium complexes to bind to DNA or model compounds has been amply demonstrated,¹⁰⁴⁻¹¹⁴ although it was found that the actual DNA binding of certain ruthenium compounds was weaker or/and different to the one observed for platinum derivatives.^{106, 115, 116} But, recent studies for a series of ruthenium anticancer compounds revealed that DNA is not always the primary target and that these species were actually binding more strongly to proteins than to DNA.¹¹⁷⁻¹¹⁹ These findings clearly indicated the occurrence of significantly different modes of action, depending on the type of ruthenium complexes. However, the exact mechanism by which these metallodrugs exert their effects has not (yet) been fully understood. Nonetheless, in this section, we will highlight recent developments on the elucidation of the mechanism of action of anticancer ruthenium half-sandwich organometallic compounds as well as the exact role of the metal centre. A non-exhaustive catalogue of ruthenium organometallic antitumor agents can be found in recent reviews or book chapters.^{5, 120-123} We will use structure comparisons to explicit the mechanism differences / analogies of these compounds.

At a first glance, the structural similarity of the half-sandwich “piano-stool” type organometallics presented in Figure 7 might suggest an analogous mechanism of cytotoxic action. However, to the best of our current knowledge, they appear to be much different.



Ru^{II} arene ethylenediamine derivatives



RAPTA Derivatives

Figure 7. (η^6 -arene) Ruthenium anticancer complexes.

Salder *et al.* established that the mechanism of action of their compounds $[(\eta^6\text{-arene})\text{Ru}(\text{en})(\text{Cl})]^+$ (en = ethylenediamine) (Figure 7, left) has a lot of analogies to that of cisplatin. It first involves hydrolysis of the Ru-Cl bond of the prodrug to generate an active $[(\eta^6\text{-arene})\text{Ru}(\text{en})(\text{H}_2\text{O})]^{2+}$ species. Detailed kinetic studies showed that the Ru-Cl bond hydrolysis can be strongly influenced by the nature of the co-ligands as well as the nature of the metal ion (see also the section on organometallic Os half-sandwich compounds below).^{121, 122} Importantly, this step is suppressed in the blood due to the high chloride concentrations enabling $[(\eta^6\text{-arene})\text{Ru}(\text{en})(\text{Cl})]^+$ to cross the cell and nuclear membranes. Once inside the cell, the hydrolysis of the chloro anion takes place due to the much lower chloride concentration (ca. 25 times lower). It is then assumed that the aqua complex $[(\eta^6\text{-arene})\text{Ru}(\text{en})(\text{H}_2\text{O})]^{2+}$ binds to nuclear DNA with a high affinity for the N7 position of guanine bases as shown by NMR and X-ray crystallographic studies and transcription mapping experiments.¹¹¹⁻¹¹³ It must be pointed out that the analogy in the mode of action between $[(\eta^6\text{-arene})\text{Ru}(\text{en})(\text{Cl})]^+$ and cisplatin stops at this point. Indeed, the Ru arene compounds can only form monofunctional adducts compared to cisplatin which is known to form bifunctional adducts and DNA cross-links. Importantly also, $[(\eta^6\text{-arene})\text{Ru}(\text{en})(\text{Cl})]^+$ derivatives were found to be active against cisplatin-resistant cell lines indicating that the detoxification mechanism is different to the one of cisplatin.¹²⁴ However, *in silico* calculations undertaken by Deubel *et al.* to compare the difference in selectivity of cisplatin to organometallic ruthenium complexes towards biological targets show that organometallic ruthenium anticancer complexes are more similar to cisplatin than to inorganic Ru(II) complexes.¹²⁵

Ru-RAPTA derivatives were originally designed for improved aqueous solubility (pta = 1,3,4-triaza-7-phosphatricyclo-[3.3.1.1]decane, Figure 7). As for Ru(II) arene ethylenediamine compounds, RAPTA derivatives¹²⁶ containing two chloride ligands were also found to be susceptible to hydrolysis and it was first anticipated that DNA was a primary target.¹²⁷ Dyson *et al.* recently prepared RAPTA carboxylato

derivatives (oxalo-RAPTA-C and carbo-RAPTA-C, Figure 8).¹²⁸ This work was evidently inspired by the structures of carboplatin and oxaliplatin. In analogy to the Pt compounds, it was assumed that the carboxylato ligands would hydrolyze slower and in a more controllable way than the chloride ligands in the original RAPTA-C compound. These RAPTA derivatives had an *in vitro* activity similar to RAPTA-C. All evidence taken together, RAPTA compounds seem to operate by a different mode of action compared to cisplatin, Ru(II) arene ethylenediamine compounds and to most of the known anticancer compounds in general. *In vitro* cytotoxicity studies showed that these compounds were much less cytotoxic than cisplatin. Indeed, many of the RAPTA compounds could not even be classified as cytotoxic and were also non-toxic to healthy cells. The extend of this non-toxicity was proven in an *in vivo* study when healthy mice were treated at quite high doses with RAPTA compounds without triggering toxic side effects.¹²⁹ But, the most striking result observed was that both RAPTA-C and RAPTA-T inhibited lung metastasis in CBA mice bearing the MCa mammary carcinoma (the number and weight of the metastases were reduced), while having only mild effects on the primary tumor.² The only other drug candidate displaying this outstanding behavior is imidazolium *trans*-[tetrachloro(dimethylsulfoxide)(1*H*-imidazole)ruthenate(III) (NAMI-A).^{2, 118} This discovery is of high practical interest as the removal of the primary tumor by surgery is frequently an efficient procedure while the treatment options for metastases are quite limited.²

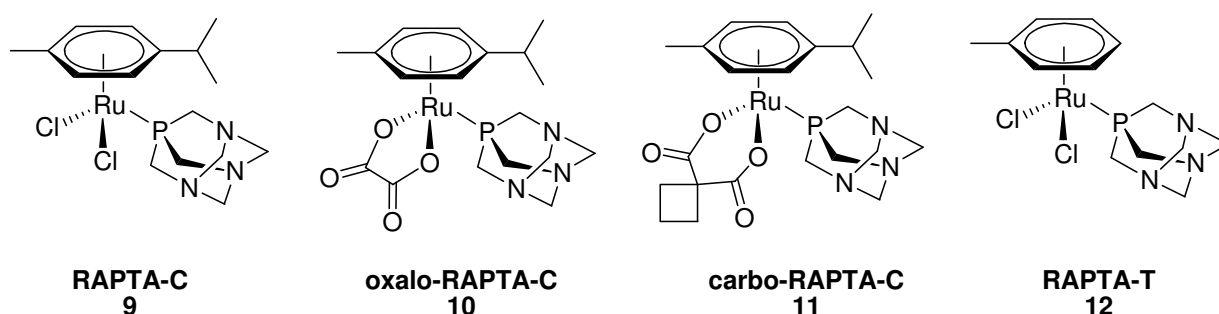


Figure 8. RAPTA derivatives.

Nonetheless, these very exciting findings engendered naturally a new and obvious question: If DNA is not the target for these RAPTA derivatives, then which is it? The final answer has not yet been given but, at this stage of the research, enzyme binding is the most probable explanation. It was shown by mass spectroscopy that RAPTA compounds form adducts with proteins¹³⁰ and that the reactivity of RAPTA-C and cisplatin in the presence of proteins was much different.¹³¹ To get more insight, Messori *et al.* studied the inhibition activity of a series of RAPTA compounds to two proteins, i.e. cathepsin B (cat B) and thioredoxin reductase (TrxR), which are possible targets for anticancer metallodrugs.¹³² They found that all tested Ru compounds were inhibitors of cat B while none of them, with the exception of RAPTA-C, was inhibiting TrxR. Computer docking experiments validated this finding. Assuming that one of the two chloride ligands of the RAPTA derivatives was first replaced by a water molecule, it was then found that the Ru(II) centre coordinates to the active site cysteine residue. Furthermore, other atoms of RAPTA (chloride, nitrogen of pta, etc...) bind other amino acids of cat B, thereby stabilizing the metallodrug-enzyme complex.¹³² Interestingly, a good agreement was observed between the inhibiting potency of the RAPTA derivatives and the calculated stability of the corresponding cat B/RAPTA adducts.¹³²

Other proteins have been proposed as the target for Ru organometallics. P-glycoprotein (Pgp) is a plasma membrane protein which is responsible for drug efflux from cells and which is involved in multi-drug resistance (MDR).¹²⁰ Inhibitors of Pgp, namely phenoxazine and anthracene derivatives, were synthetically modified and coordinated to Ru organometallics.¹³³ The aim was to obtain a synergistic effect by combining the selectivity of ruthenium complexes towards cancer cells and the ability of the phenoxazine and anthracene derivatives for Pgp inhibition. These newly formed complexes were found to be, in general, more cytotoxic and inhibited in a lesser extend the Pgp protein than the original Pgp inhibitor derivatives used as ligands. Interestingly, for one of these ruthenium derivatives (**13**, Figure 9), it was shown that the ruthenium coordination to the Pgp inhibitor derivative induced an even stronger protein inhibition. Furthermore, due to the presence of the fluorescent

anthracene group, it was observed that **13** was accumulating in cell nuclei suggesting a DNA synthesis inhibition as the mechanism of cytotoxic action. Nonetheless, due to the strong increase in cytotoxicity upon ruthenium coordination, Dyson *et al.* believe that their organometallic not only inhibits but also induces cell death via a second mechanism, implying a bifunctionality of their compound.¹³³

In a similar line of thought, namely a dual cytotoxic mode of action, ethacrynic acid (EA) was coupled to two RAPTA derivatives (**15** and **16**, Figure 9)¹³⁴ as well as to other Ru-arene organometallics.¹³⁵ EA is an effective glutathione transferase (GST) inhibitor, which has been investigated as a potential anticancer drug. EA is known to bind competitively to the hydrophobic cosubstrate (H-site) of GST while the RAPTA compounds are recognized to react with soft nucleophilic centers such as thiol groups (see above).¹³⁴ **15** and **16** compounds were therefore thought to be able to bind not only to the enzyme at the H-site but also to interact with the reactive cysteine residues of GST P1-1 (this GST protein possesses two solvent-accessible cysteine residues that affect catalytic activity when modified). As assumed, these two new compounds were found to bind the catalytic H-site, in a similar fashion to EA. Furthermore, the inhibition constants K_i of the complexes on GST P1-1 were three or four times lower than EA. The authors therefore concluded that the ruthenium centers were also involved in the inhibition of GST P1-1. Interestingly, it was demonstrated by X-ray crystallography and by ESI-MS that **16** decomposed, over a period of time, into a ruthenium derivative and EA. It is anticipated that the cleavage occurred, by virtue of a possible allosteric effect or simply over time, when the EA moiety of **16** is bound to the H-site. Importantly, this (selective?) release of the ruthenium moiety should enhance the toxic effect of the compound on cancer cells, which had already been sensitized by the EA moiety that inactivated GST.¹³⁴ This feature could be used to specifically deliver a cytotoxic payload for targeted chemotherapy.¹³⁴



GST Inhibitors

Figure 9. Ru-arene enzyme inhibitors.

Still in a metal-drug synergism context, the group of Sánchez-Delgado coupled different Ru-arene complexes to chloroquine (CQ), which is known to be an effective antimalarial compound as well as having anticancer properties (see metallocenes section above).¹³⁶ Different to the ferroquine mentioned above,^{17, 137} in which the ferrocenyl moiety is non-toxic (or at least commonly assumed to be), these compounds are made of two toxic moieties. The compounds had a consistently higher potency against CQ-resistant parasites than that of the standard drug chloroquine diphosphate (CQDP). In addition, two of their compounds (**17** and **18**, Figure 10) inhibit the growth of two HCT-116 colon cancer cell lines with IC₅₀ values between 20 and 35 μM. They also observed that liposarcoma cell lines were especially sensitive to **17** with an IC₅₀ value of 8 μM. This is of clinical interest as this type of tumor does not respond to currently employed chemotherapies.¹³⁶

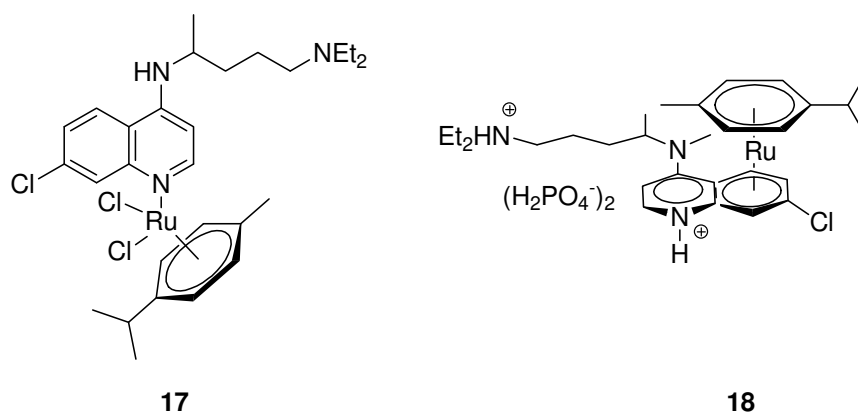


Figure 10. Ru-Arene chloroquinone antimalarial and antitumor agents.¹³⁶

Other proteins have been shown to be the target of cytotoxic ruthenium organometallics. For example, Sheldrick *et al.* have used an automated multidimensional protein identification technology (MudPIT), which combined biphasic liquid chromatography with electrospray ionization tandem mass spectrometry (MS/MS) to analyze tryptic peptides from *Escherichia coli* cells, which were first treated with $[(\eta^6\text{-}p\text{-cymene})\text{RuCl}_2(\text{DMSO})]$ (**14**, Figure 9).¹³⁸ They showed that five proteins, namely the cold-shock protein CspC, the three stress-response proteins *ppiD*, *osmY* and *SucC* as well as the DNA damage-inducible helicase *dinG* were the target of their Ru-arene compounds.¹³⁸ Using electrophoretic mobility shift assays, Brabec, Sadler and co-workers also examined the binding properties of the mismatch repair (MMR) protein MutS in *Escherichia coli* with various DNA duplexes (homoduplexes or mismatched duplexes) containing a single centrally located adduct of Ru(II) arene compounds.¹³⁹ They showed that presence of the Ru(II) arene adducts decreased the affinity of MutS for ruthenated DNA duplexes, which either had a regular sequence or contained a mismatch, and, that intercalation of the arene contributed considerably to this inhibitory effect.¹³⁹

Interestingly, it was recently demonstrated that iodo-containing Ru(II) arene organometallic derivatives **19** and **20** (Figure 11) were highly cytotoxic to human ovarian A2780 and human lung A549 cancer cells, although these complexes are remarkably inert towards ligand substitution – no hydrolysis was observed by NMR and ESI-MS.¹⁴⁰ Fluorescence-trapping experiments in A549 cells suggested that

this potency arose from an increase in reactive oxygen species (ROS). Surprisingly, these Ru complexes act as catalyst for the oxidation of the tripeptide glutathione (GSH), which is a strong reducing agent present in millimolar concentrations in cells. Indeed, millimolar amounts of GSH were oxidized to glutathione disulfide in the presence of micromolar ruthenium concentrations! The same group showed that the anticancer complex $[\eta^6\text{-bip})\text{Ru}(\text{en})\text{Cl}]^+ \mathbf{21}$ (bip=biphenyl) (Figure 11) readily reacts with GSH, at pH 7, in a typical cytoplasmic concentration of chloride and at Ru concentrations relevant to cytotoxicity, to give a thiolato complex $[\eta^6\text{-bip})\text{Ru}(\text{en})(\text{GS-S})]$ as the major product.¹¹³ Unexpectedly, this complex is very sensitive to air and is oxidized to the sulfenato complex $[\eta^6\text{-bip})\text{Ru}(\text{en})(\text{GS(O)-S})]$. However, under physiologically relevant conditions, competitive reaction of complex **21** with GSH and guanosine 3',5'-cyclic monophosphate (cGMP) gave rise to a cGMP ruthenium adduct, accounting for 62% of total Ru, even in the presence of a 250-fold molar excess of GSH.¹¹³ This suggests that oxidation of coordinated glutathione in the thiolato complex to the sulfenate provides a facile route for displacement of S-bound glutathione by the guanine N7 atom, a route for RNA and DNA ruthenation even in the presence of a large excess of GSH.¹¹³

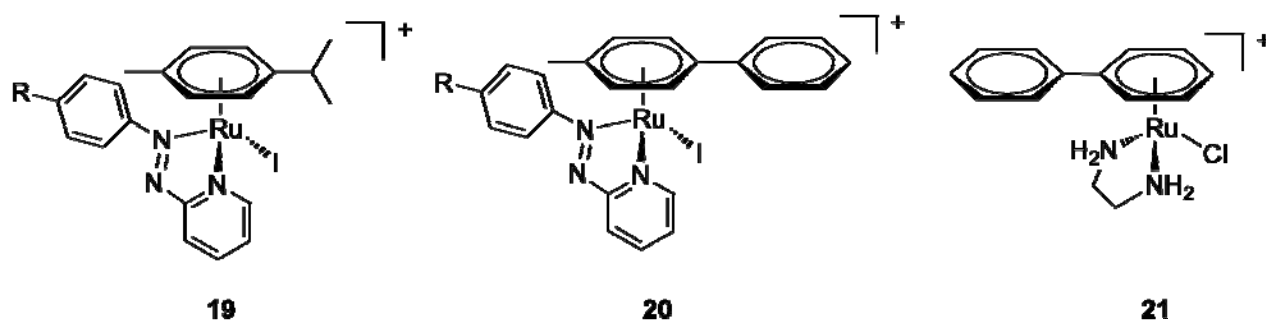


Figure 11. Structures of catalytically active organometallic anticancer complexes.

It must be pointed out that Sadler *et al.* recently unambiguously identified di-ruthenium and tetra-ruthenium clusters when complex **21** was reacted with GSH, using nanoscale liquid chromatography fourier transform ion cyclotron mass spectrometry combined with ^{18}O -labeling.¹⁴¹ The same group also

recently observed the binding of Ru-arene compounds with human serum albumin by means of mass spectroscopy combined with trypsin digestion, specific side-chain modifications and computational modeling.¹⁴² Finally, a loss of cytotoxic activity of Ru-arene organometallics upon oxidation of their amine ligand such as *o*-phenylenediamine (*o*-pda) to the corresponding imine ligand *o*-benzoquinonediimine (*o*-bqdi) (Figure 12) was observed.¹⁴³ For example, the IC₅₀ values against A2780 ovarian cancer cells of **22** is of 11 μ M while compound **23** displays a value above 100 μ M. Interestingly, the *o*-bqdi complexes can be reduced by GSH but readily undergo reoxidation in air.

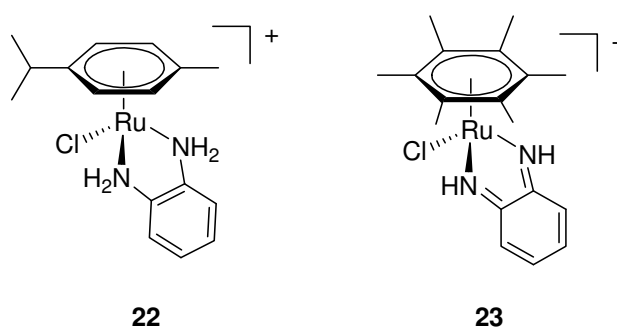
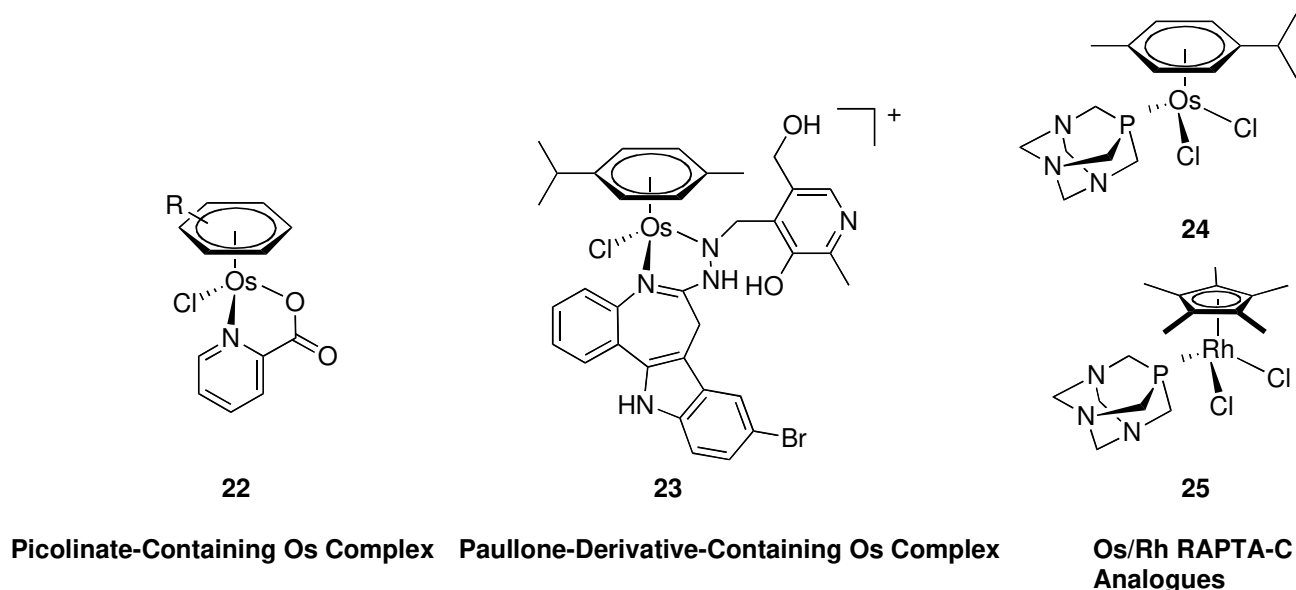


Figure 12. Ru-arene anticancer complexes with redox-active diamine / diimine ligands.

Dyson *et al.* recently described the preparation of a series of RAPTA-type complexes with fluoro-substituted η^6 -arene ligands.¹⁴⁴ Electron-withdrawing fluoro- or CF₃- units were added to the arene to modulate the pKa values of the complexes. The activity of these organometallics was found to be strongly influenced by the presence of the substituents. IC₅₀ values of the fluoro compounds were in general much lower than those of the non-fluorinated analogues.

Organometallic Osmium half-sandwich complexes. Probably due to its reputation of being highly toxic (see OsO₄) and relatively inert towards substitution, osmium organometallics have been neglected as therapeutic agents in comparison to its lighter congener ruthenium.^{121, 145} Recently however, several research groups¹⁴⁶⁻¹⁵⁴ investigated the anticancer activity of osmium(II) arene half-sandwich complexes. Their results indicate that Os(II) organometallics might be promising candidates as antitumor drugs.

The kinetic and thermodynamic properties found for the first Os complexes were unsatisfactory despite the fact that they were isostructural to the active Ru complexes.¹²¹ Concomitantly, the biological activity was low and the following SAR was established and then be used to improve their activity. The ligand exchange rate (chloride against water, see discussion above in the organometallic Ru half-sandwich section) was notably too slow (40 to 100 times slower than the Ru analogues, depending on the pH value). The water bound to the osmium is indeed more acidic by 1-2 pK_a units than when bound to analogous ruthenium complexes. In order to restore activity, a new series of Os complexes was prepared, in which the neutral N,N-chelate ethylenediamine was replaced by O,O and N,O anionic chelating ligands with a stronger *trans* effect. Following this thought, picolinate was identified as an ideal ligand candidate and the respective complexes [(η⁶-arene)Os(pico)Cl] (**22**, Figure 13) had faster hydrolysis rates and potent anticancer activity comparable to carboplatin.¹⁴⁸ Furthermore, their mechanism of action is thought to be similar to their Ru organometallics – nuclear DNA being the biological target as shown by studies demonstrating the binding of such complexes to DNA.¹⁵⁰



Arion, Keppler and co-workers investigated the binding of ruthenium and osmium to paullone derivatives, which are known to be potent inhibitors of cyclin-dependent kinases (CDKs) (**23**, Figure 13).¹⁵² This “metalation” was thought to increase the solubility and bioavailability of the paullone ligands. They showed that complexes such as **23** had respectable antiproliferative activity in submicromolar to very low micromolar concentrations in three cell lines, with no significant differences between the Os and Ru complexes. No CDK inhibition was published so far on those compounds and their binding to 5'-GMP was found significantly different depending on the complexes. This indicates that they exert their anticancer activity either by binding to crucial proteins or by noncovalent DNA interactions.¹⁵²

theoretical approach, it was reported that the binding of **RAPTA-C** and **24** to a 14-mer oligonucleotide was nonspecific contrary to cisplatin, indicating a different mechanism of action and / or a different biological target.¹⁵³

Telomerase is a ribonucleoprotein with DNA polymerase activity that maintains the length of telomeric DNA by adding hexameric units to the 3' single strand terminus. It is therefore a crucial enzyme for cancer progression. Rosenberg, Osella and co-workers investigated telomerase inhibition by a series of water-soluble cyclometallated benzoheterocycle triosmium clusters (**26-29**, Figure 14).¹⁵⁵ Their motivation was that quinoline derivatives had shown interesting biological properties, especially in inhibiting enzymes.¹⁵⁶ Among all compounds, only the negatively charged clusters (by virtue of the sulfonated phosphines) exhibited good activity as telomerase inhibitors when tested on semi-purified enzymes in a cell-free assay. However, they were ineffective *in vitro* on *Taq*, a different DNA-polymerase. Furthermore, none of the osmium clusters decreased the telomerase activity in the MCF-7 breast cancer cell line, as observed by the Telomeric Repeat Amplification Protocol (TRAP assay). This may well be due to the low aptitude of these organometallics to cross the cell membrane. However, all compounds were acutely cytotoxic, probably due to their accumulation on cell membranes, as shown for compound **27a** by inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry (ICP-MS). It was hypothesized that **27a** interfered with the normal trafficking and functions of the membrane. Gobetto, Rosenberg and co-workers also investigated the interaction of other positively and negatively charged triosmium carbonyl clusters with albumin, using the transverse and longitudinal relaxation times of the hydride resonances as ¹H NMR probes of binding to the protein.¹⁵⁷ Evidence of binding was observed for both the positively and negatively charged clusters. However, they exhibit distinctly different rotational correlation times.¹⁵⁷ It was anticipated that the negatively charged clusters bind more tightly than their positive analogues as albumin is rich in positively charged amino acids.¹⁵⁷ The same researchers also established guanines as the binding sites of another positively charged water-soluble benzoheterocycle

triosmium cluster to single- and double-stranded DNA by using a range of different biochemical methods.¹⁵⁸

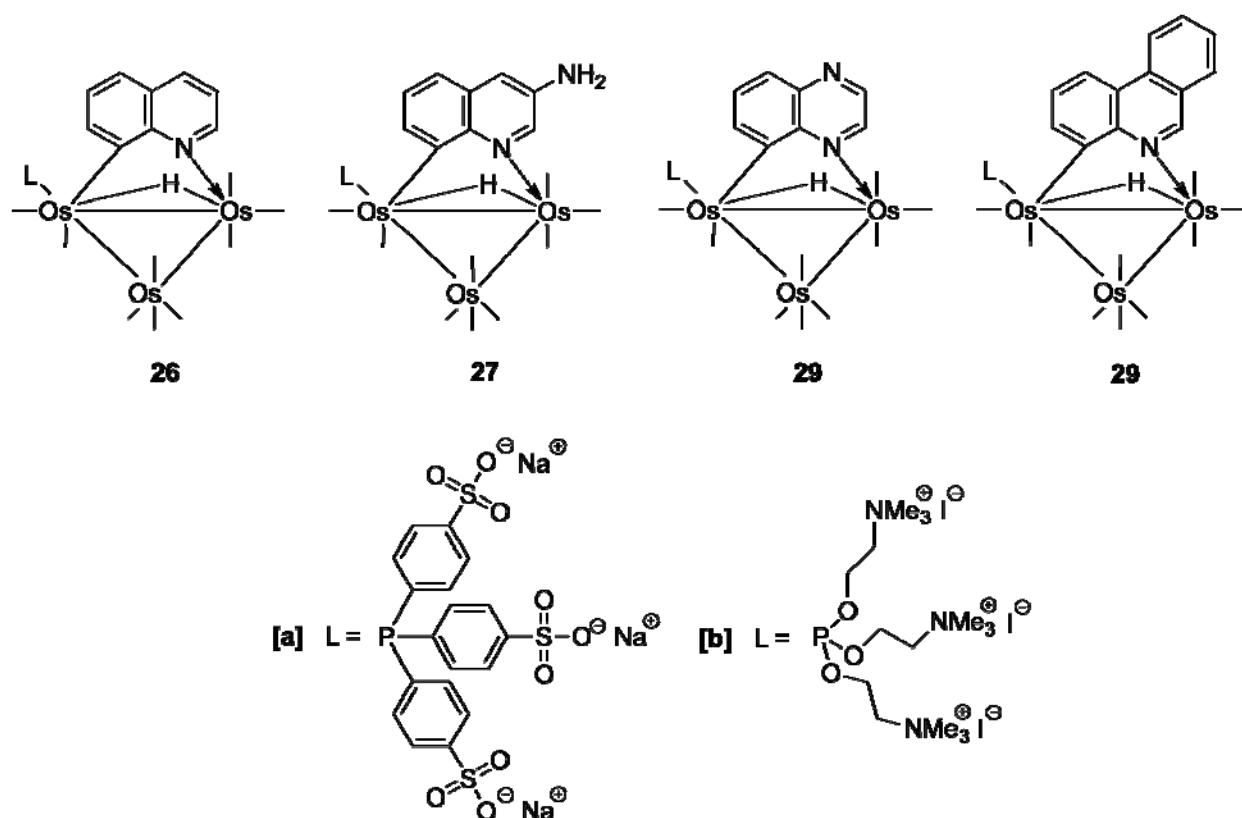


Figure 14. Triosmium clusters as potential inhibitors of telomerase enzyme. Ligand sites on Os denoted by (–) indicate CO ligands.

It is worth mentioning that $\text{Os}_3(\text{CO})_9$ type cluster and dicobalt carbonyl fragments were also reacted with derivatives of tamoxifen, a widely used drug in the treatment of hormone-dependent breast cancer.¹⁵⁹ The organometallic moiety was found to increase the lipophilicity and reduced affinity, via steric hindrance, for the estrogen receptor, but no cytotoxicity studies were carried out on the compounds.

Organometallic Iridium and Rhodium half-sandwich complexes. In contrast to their Ru(II) congeners, the isoelectronic Rh(III) and Ir(III) half-sandwich compounds have attracted much less attention as potential anticancer agents.^{154, 160-162} But, interestingly, among the few examples reported in the literature, different biomolecules were reported as (potential) targets. Nevertheless, even though it was shown that these compounds were indeed targeting the desired biomolecules, their exact mode of cytotoxic action is still unknown. Hence, Sheldrick *et al.* showed that Ir(III) and Rh(III) complexes such as **30** (Figure 15) bind DNA through intercalation of their polypyridyl ligands.^{160, 161} Polypyridyl-containing half-sandwich complexes with Ru(II) and Rh(II) central atoms and pentamethyl-cyclopentadienyl or hexamethyl-benzene ligands showed stable intercalative binding into DNA and exhibited excellent cytotoxic activities.^{114, 161} Cellular uptake studies by atomic absorption spectroscopy (AAS) revealed that the antiproliferative effects of the complexes were mainly correlated to the size of the polypyridyl ligands, thereby highlighting the special role of ligand lipophilicity on the bioactivity of this class of organometallic antitumor drug candidates. Whereas an interaction with the DNA might significantly contribute to the cytotoxic activity of the agents, the presence of additional cellular targets or alternative modes of action is very likely and is therefore the subject of ongoing research projects.

Another example of anticancer Ir(III) compounds has been found, probably by serendipity. Indeed, in order to design new biological probes for Bovine Serum Albumin (BSA), Lo *et al.* prepared a series of luminescent Ir(III) complexes (**31**, Figure 15) containing an indole derivative – indole is known to bind to BSA – which were found to be highly cytotoxic towards HeLa cells.¹⁶² It is also interesting to mention that other cationic Ir(III) complexes such as **31** have been recently reported for phosphorescence staining in the cytoplasm of living cells and were shown to be non-cytotoxic.¹⁶³

Interestingly, the hetero-bi-organometallic ferrocene-containing Rh(I) derivative **32** (Figure 15) had a similar cytotoxicity in prostate cancer cell lines as cisplatin but a significantly different pathway for

activation of cell death.¹⁶⁴ While cisplatin predominantly induces apoptosis, **32** induces late necrosis and abnormal nuclear morphology.¹⁶⁴ This latter finding is of interest as apoptosis-resistant cells might be better killed with drugs inducing the necrotic pathway.¹⁶⁴ Furthermore, the same complex **32** and other related Rh(I) and Ir(I) analogues (**33** and **34**, Figure 15) were also found cytotoxic towards Chinese Hamster Ovary (CHO) cells with the Rh(I) complexes having IC₅₀ values close to cisplatin while the Ir(I) complex had a slightly higher IC₅₀ value.¹⁶⁵ These compounds were also tested for their capacity to sensitize hypoxic CHO cells against irradiation. Indeed, tumors are notoriously hypoxic and radioresistant. Both factors limit the success of radiotherapy. Modulation of the radiosensitivity by drugs such as cisplatin is in routine clinical application.¹⁶⁵ Indeed, the Rh(I) complex **32** proved to be an excellent radiosensitizer with properties similar to cisplatin.¹⁶⁵

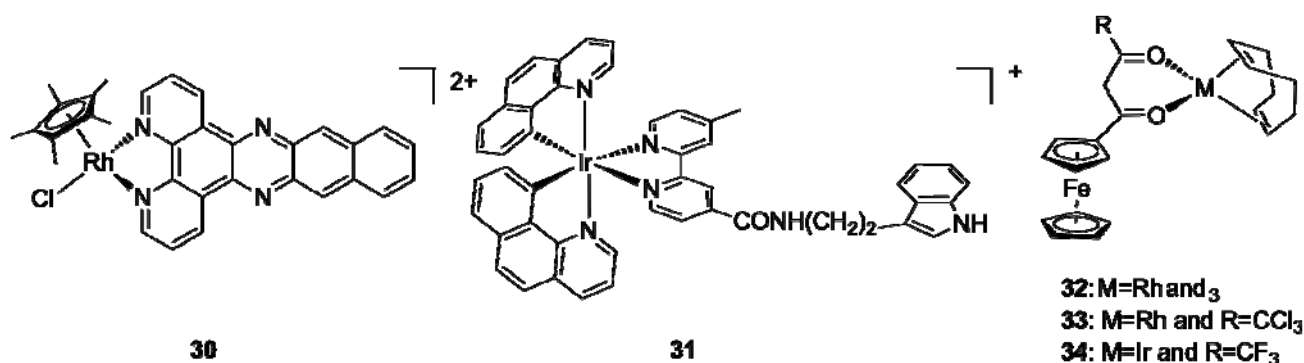


Figure 15. Examples of Rh(III), Ir(III), Rh(I) and Ir(I) cytotoxic organometallic compounds.

Rhenium Organometallics. Re organometallics are another very new class of promising antiproliferative compounds. Until recently, only very few examples of cytotoxic Re complexes were described in the literature.¹⁶⁶⁻¹⁶⁸ However, over the last years, several compounds with interesting cytotoxicity were reported and their possible mode of action was explored.¹⁶⁹⁻¹⁷⁴ A non-exhaustive list of toxic Re compounds is presented in Figure 16. It is still premature to draw any definite conclusions on the molecular basis for the activity of the Re organometallics presented in this Figure. However, a few targets are now envisaged. Hor and co-workers assumed that their complexes such as **38** and **39** (Figure 16) were likely to bind to DNA bases or side-chains of amino acid residues in peptides and proteins after displacement of the labile ligands.^{166, 167} Other related Re compounds such as $[\text{Re}_2(\mu\text{-OH})_3(\text{CO})_6]^-$, $[\text{Re}_2(\mu\text{-OH})(\mu\text{-OPh})_2(\text{CO})_6]^-$, $[\text{Re}_2(\mu\text{-OMe})_2(\mu\text{-dppf})_2(\text{CO})_6]^-$ and $[\text{Re}_2(\mu\text{-OPh})_2(\mu\text{-dppf})_2(\text{CO})_6]^-$ (dppf = 1,1'-bis(diphenylphosphino)ferrocene) have been shown to interfere with nucleic acid metabolism at multiple enzyme sites in L1210 lymphoid leukaemia cells, causing DNA strand scission after 60 minutes incubation.¹⁶⁸ Ma *et al.* observed by spectroscopic titrations and viscosity experiments that their complex **37** (Figure 16) had a modest DNA binding constant and that **37** was interacting with DNA via groove binding.¹⁶⁹ Modeling studies suggested that the minor groove was the favored binding site.¹⁶⁹ Lo *et al.* prepared and carefully characterized a series of luminescent Re complexes such as **35**, **36** and **42**, which were generally highly cytotoxic.¹⁷²⁻¹⁷⁴ However, the exact target or mechanism of actions of these compounds are at this stage of the research unknown. Recently, Doyle, Zubieta and co-workers prepared two new fluorescent Re-tricarbonyl bioconjugates, namely a folate (**41**)¹⁷⁰ and a vitamin B₁₂ (**43**)¹⁷¹ conjugate (Figure 15). **41** was screened against a doxorubicin- and cisplatin-resistant human ovarian cancer cell line (A2780/AD) which overexpresses the folate receptor (FR). As expected, **41** was internalized by a folate receptor-mediated endocytotic pathway in this cell line. In contrary, no internalization of **41** was observed with a FR-negative Chinese Hamster Ovary (CHO) cell line. **41** was more cytotoxic than cisplatin towards the FR-positive cell line. The toxicity of **41** was attributed to the intercalation between the Re complex and DNA. The structure of the

Re complex of **41** is consistent with the criteria for minor-groove binding to DNA with the quinoline rings preferring the A•T sites of the helix, and with the positive charge contributed by the metal ion.¹⁷⁰ Interestingly, no inhibition of topoisomerase I activity was observed with the Re complex of **41**.¹⁷⁰

The fluorescent Re bioconjugate **43** (Figure 16) was prepared to target the cubilin receptor through the vitamin B₁₂ uptake pathway.¹⁷¹ Vitamin B₁₂ is an important requirement for rapidly growing cancer cells and is therefore an interesting carrier for drug delivery assuming that receptors involved in its uptake can be targeted. *In vitro* antiproliferative cell assays against cubilin-expressing placental choriocarcinoma BeWo and CHO cell lines were undertaken and **43** was found only moderately cytotoxic towards BeWo cells (IC₅₀ = 376 μ M). The parent Re compound **40** was found 10 times more cytotoxic than **43** (Figure 16),¹⁷¹ probably because of a more rapid uptake of **43** to the intracellular pool due to passive diffusion. Aggregation of **43** in the cytosol and in the nucleus was observed. The positively charged rhenium chelate component is envisaged to interact with the negatively charged DNA backbone, thus playing a role in the observed cytotoxicity.¹⁷¹

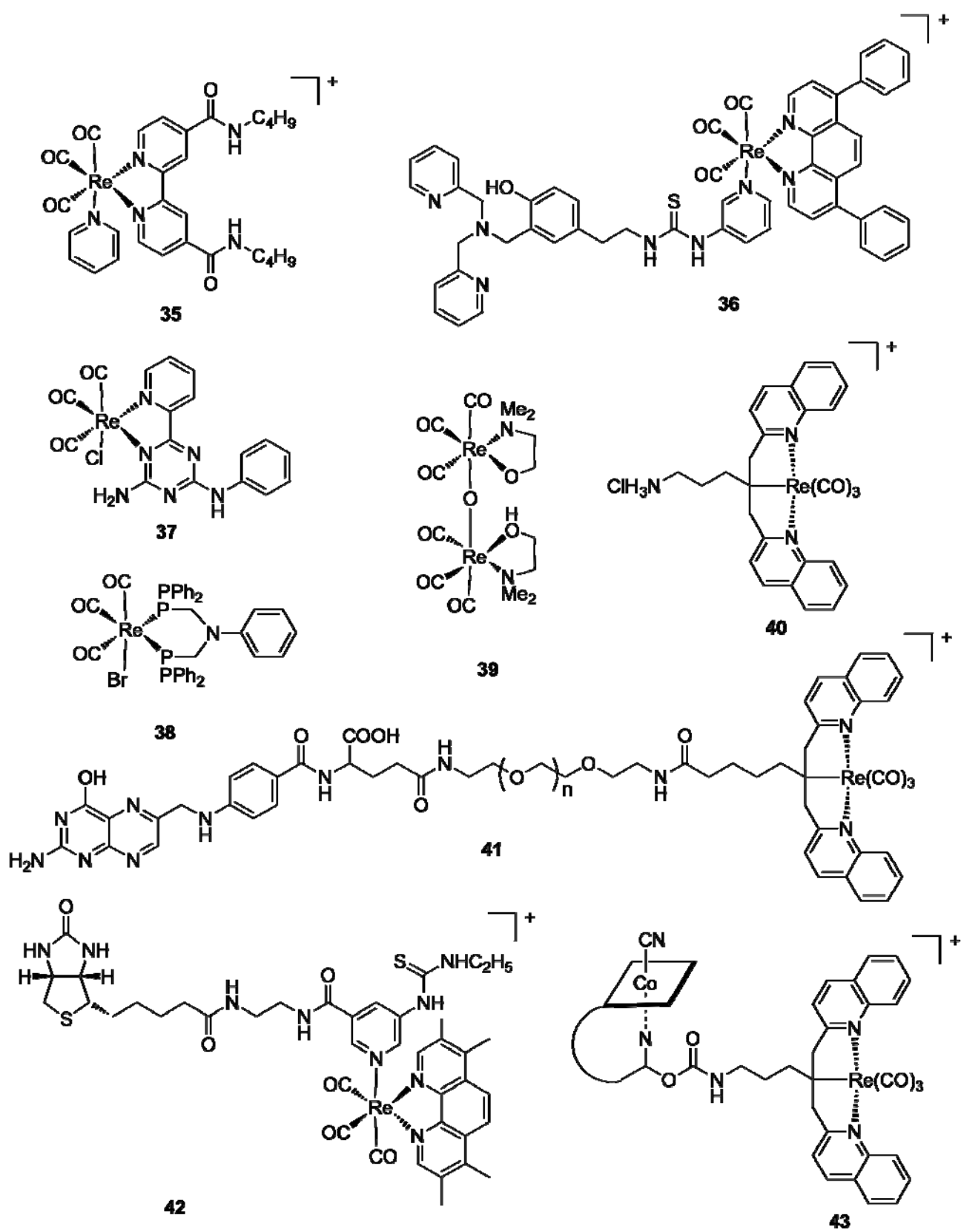


Figure 16. Cytotoxic Re organometallics.

Ruthenium, Osmium, Iridium, and Platinum Organometallics as scaffolds for protein kinase inhibitors. [NOTE TO THE EDITOR. Please insert a footnote with the following text: “The three reviews cited in this section provide references to the early original papers of Meggers *et al.*”]

With the exception of DNA-intercalating compounds, the metal centre very likely plays a direct role in the anticancer activity of most compounds discussed so far by either binding DNA and / or proteins. In contrast, Meggers *et al.* have used metal complexes as structurally inert *scaffolds* for enzyme inhibitors.¹⁷⁵⁻¹⁷⁷ Their starting idea was that the spatial organisation of the substituents around the metal centre of a metal complex is much more versatile and therefore increases substantially the opportunity to build complicated three-dimensional enzyme inhibitor structures. Importantly, the metal is not playing any direct role in the inhibition; it “only” allows the spatial organisation of the substituents around the metal centre. Their chosen targets were protein kinases which are known to regulate many aspects of cellular physiology and pathophysiology.¹⁷⁸ The mutations and deregulation of protein kinases plays a causal role in many human diseases, making them an important therapeutic target.¹⁷⁷ Eight kinase inhibitors are already clinically approved while several more are in the pipeline. Numerous indolocarbazole alkaloid derivatives such as staurosporine were found to be potent protein kinases inhibitors by hydrogen binding the ATP binding site (Figure 17).¹⁷⁶ However, a central drawback in the design of these kinase inhibitors is the fact that kinases form one of the largest families of enzymes with highly conserved ATP binding sites, thus rendering the design of *selective* inhibitors very challenging.¹⁷⁷ To overcome this limitation, Meggers *et al.* synthesized a significant number of metal-containing enzyme inhibitors, the majority of them being Ru(II) complexes and some Pt and Os derivatives (See Figure 18 for a few examples of Ru(II) complexes). They successfully designed nanomolar and even picomolar ATP-competitive ruthenium-based inhibitors. This concept has been confirmed by, so far, six different co-crystal structures of Ru complexes with protein kinases.^{179, 180} As expected, the metal ion played solely a structural role (Figure 19). However, the organic ligands can be optimized to occupy the available space in the active site, as well as providing additional hydrogen

bonding interactions, thus making the individual inhibitors highly specific. Moreover, physiological functions as a consequence of kinase inhibition were demonstrated within mammalian cells, *Xenopus* embryos and zebrafish embryos.

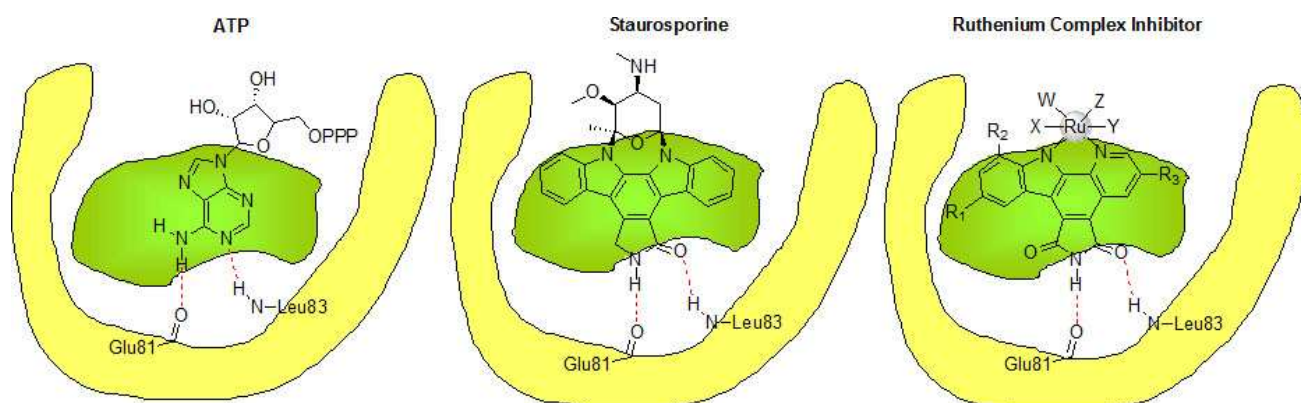


Figure 17. Binding of ATP (left), staurosporine (middle) and ruthenium complexes (right) to the ATP-binding site of cyclin dependent kinase 2 (CDK2). The green area indicates a patch of high hydrophobicity. Adapted from references.^{176, 181}

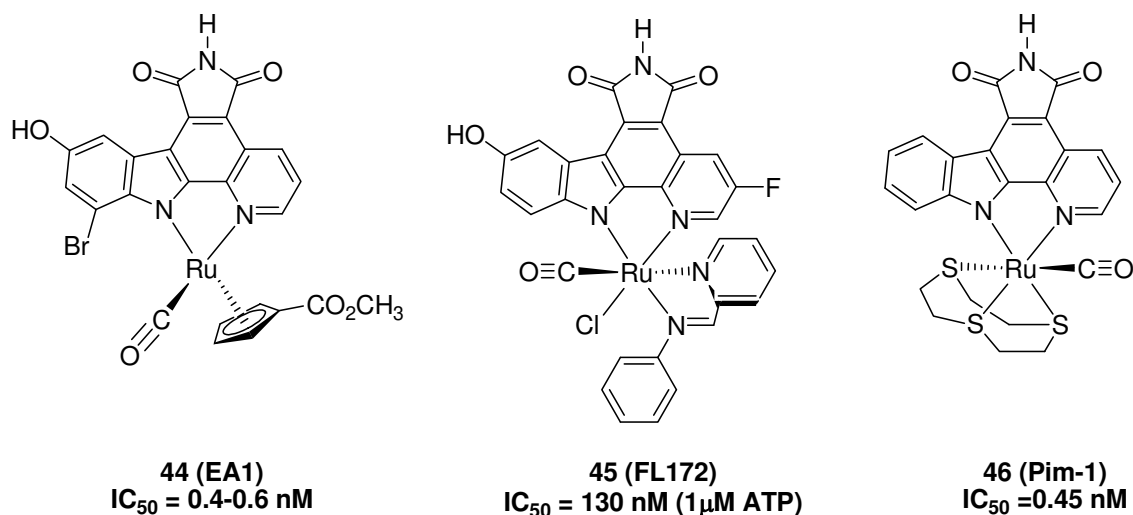


Figure 18. Examples of Ru(II) organometallics as kinase inhibitors with their IC_{50} values. IC_{50} values were measured at 100 μM ATP if not indicated otherwise.

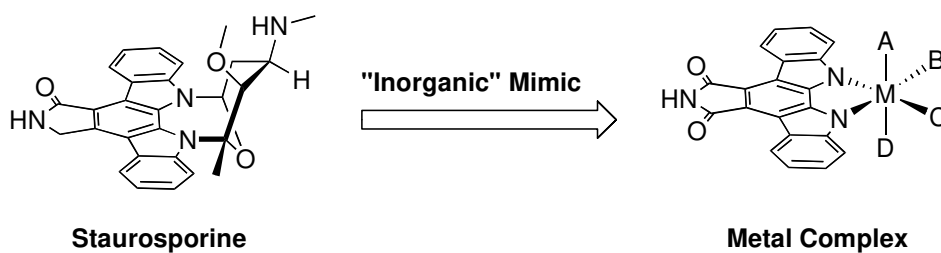


Figure 19. Schematic view of how the metal complex mimics the overall shape of staurosporine.

Adapted from references.^{177, 182}

Ru complexes seem like ideal candidates for this purpose as they are chemically stable in air, water and in buffer containing millimolar concentrations of thiols, as well as being configurationally stable against ligand exchange or scrambling around the metal centre.¹⁷⁷ Other advantages are the well established synthetic chemistry of Ru complexes, a moderate price of the starting material (RuCl_3) and low toxicity of such compounds.¹⁷⁷ Recently this concept of drug design was extended to inert iridium(III) species featuring a highly potent and selective inhibitor of the kinase Flt4, which also demonstrated strong anti-angiogenic effects in zebrafish embryos.¹⁸³

Metal NHC complexes. Transition metal carbene complexes are organometallic compounds featuring a divalent organic ligand, which is coordinated to the metal centre (see Figure 1). N-heterocyclic carbenes (NHCs) are generally derived from the so-called persistent carbenes, which are stable compounds of divalent carbon. As they are strongly stabilized by π -donating substituents, NHCs are good σ -donors but π -bonding with the metal is weak. Metal NHC complexes are well known for their catalytic properties. Additionally, their high stability and ease of derivatization makes them suitable candidates for drug development.^{184, 185}

First reports on the biological application of NHC complexes dealt with the discovery of new anti-microbial compounds and have also stimulated the evaluation of these compounds as antiproliferative agents.¹⁸⁶⁻¹⁸⁸ For example, the cationic gold imidazolidine derivative **47** displayed excellent activity against the growth of several species including *Pseudomonas aeruginosa* and *Staphylococcus aureus* (Figure 20).¹⁸⁷ Most efforts in the development of carbenes as antibiotics have been focusing on NHC silver complexes. Silver complexes have a long tradition as anti-infectives, however, their mode of action is not completely understood so far. Interactions with the bacterial cell walls and the related biochemistry seem to be of relevance.¹⁸⁹ The pyridine-linked silver carbene complexes **48** and **49** exhibited higher bacteriostatic effects than silver nitrate.¹⁸⁸ Promising antibacterial activities were also obtained with complex **50**, which showed substantially higher stability in aqueous media than structurally related silver NHC complexes without Cl-substituents.¹⁹² Interestingly, **50** and structurally related species were also active against the growth of certain cultured tumor cells and preliminary studies on **50** using an ovarian cancer xenograft model also indicated *in vivo* antitumor activity.¹⁹³ Indeed, as outlined in more detail below, metal NHC complexes are promising candidates for the development of bioorganometallic anticancer therapeutics. In most cases, structures described as antiproliferative are closely related to the above mentioned antibacterial agents, thereby highlighting the broad applicability of the class of transition metal species.

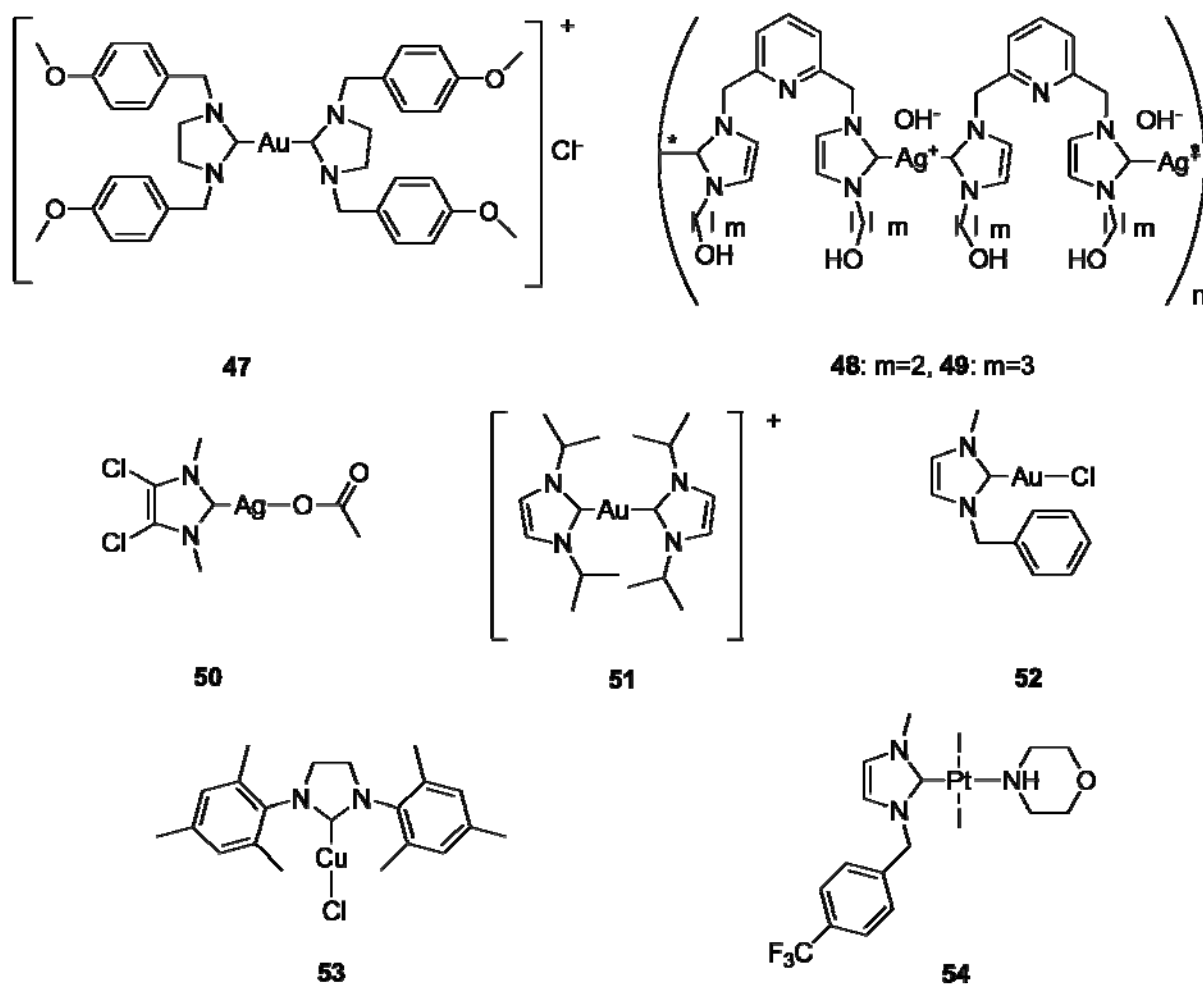


Figure 20. Metal NHC complexes.

In 2004, Barnard *et al.* reported the induction of mitochondrial permeability transition in isolated rat liver mitochondria by dinuclear Au(I) carbene complexes.¹⁹⁴ This result is of special interest as gold complexes have been discussed as agents with an antimithochondrial mode of action since early studies on Au(I) phosphine drugs. Moreover, evidence that the impairment of mitochondrial functions is a major route of gold metallodrug activity keeps steadily increasing.^{195, 196} This antimithochondrial mode of action of many gold species is commonly related to the inhibition of the mitochondrial form of thioredoxin reductase (TrxR), a protein closely related to glutathione reductase. This protein is involved in various physiological processes (including proliferation) and is overexpressed in several cancerous

tissues. The active site of mammalian TrxR contains a selenocysteine residue, which is considered to be the target of gold metallodrugs.^{196, 197}

Antimitochondrial effects (induction of Ca^{2+} -sensitive mitochondrial swelling) were also noted for a series of mononuclear, linear cationic $[\text{Au}(\text{NHC})_2]^+$ complexes.¹⁹⁸ The onset of mitochondrial swelling was most rapidly induced by the complexes with the highest lipophilicity, which was in line with previous studies on gold(I) species demonstrating that the bioactivity can be influenced by fine-tuning of the lipophilicity. A complex (**51**) with intermediate lipophilicity was selected for further studies confirming the significant anti-mitochondrial properties. It was found that **51** induced apoptosis via caspase-9 and caspase-3 activation. Furthermore, **51** inhibited TrxR activity in MDA-MB-231 cells and accumulated in mitochondria.^{199, 200} Structurally related Au(I) NHC complexes containing one NHC ligand and one chloro ligand (see **52** in Figure 20 for a relevant example) exhibited potent inhibitory activities against protein tyrosine phosphatases, a family of enzymes involved in various physiological processes.²⁰¹ In analogy to the interaction of various gold complexes with cysteine and selenocysteine residues of TrxR or glutathione reductase (GR),^{196, 197} a cysteine residue in the catalytic site of protein tyrosine phosphatases is most probably the main molecular target for this kind of NHC complexes.

Recently, Lemke *et al.* reported a series of gold NHC complexes with promising antiproliferative potency including Au(III) species as well as derivatives containing cysteine thiolate ligands.²⁰² Both the Au(III) and cysteine-modified NHC derivatives showed similar biological activities compared to related Au(I) NHC complexes without cysteine-derived ligands. This therefore strongly suggests that the development of structurally diverse bioactive gold NHC species is possible and activity as well as pharmacokinetic properties can be optimized by appropriate choice of the oxidation state of the metal and more sophisticated ligands. In this context it should be noted that NHC complexes can be functionalized with peptide ligands, which opens the possibility to develop metal NHC derivatives for targeted drug delivery.²⁰³

Besides the mentioned gold and silver derivatives, NHC complexes with palladium²⁰⁴, nickel²⁰⁵, copper²⁰⁶ or platinum²⁰⁷ have also been recently reported to exhibit anti-proliferative properties. Thus, the copper NHC complex **53** was more cytotoxic than cisplatin. Complex **53** induced apoptosis and, unlike cisplatin, arrested the cell cycle progression in the G1 phase. Concerning a plausible mode of action for this compound, its nuclease-like activity and O₂-activating properties, which led to DNA strand breaks, appear to be of high relevance.^{185, 206} *Trans*-configured square planar platinum(II) species (see **54** in Figure 20 for a relevant example) demonstrated promising activity also in a cisplatin-resistant cell line.²⁰⁷

Overall, metal NHC complexes display promising pharmacological properties as novel antibacterial and antitumor drugs. Regarding their mode of action, the choice of the coordinated metal most probably determines the respective main biological target - e.g. thioredoxin reductase or other enzymes containing (seleno)cysteine residues in their active site for gold or DNA for copper NHC complexes.

Metal carbonyl complexes. Metal CO complexes (or metal carbonyls) are organometallic complexes containing one or more carbon monoxide ligands. So far, a broad variety of different species with promising antiproliferative properties have been reported including the above mentioned rhenium and osmium derivatives but also various cobalt,²⁰⁸ iron,⁴⁰ chromium (half-sandwich),^{209, 210} ruthenium²¹¹ or manganese^{212, 213} bioorganometallic species.

For example, an increasing number of reports deal with the biological properties of alkyne hexacarbonyldicobalt ($\text{Co}_2(\text{CO})_6$) species²⁰⁸, a class of bioorganometallic complexes whose cytotoxic properties had been mentioned first in 1987²¹⁴ and then studied in more detail again since 1997.²¹⁵ During subsequent structure activity studies, a complex containing an acetylsalicylic acid (aspirin) derived ligand emerged as a lead compound for this class of drugs (**55** in Figure 21).^{216, 217} The importance of the aspirin partial structure for the biochemical properties of this compound is also reflected in its name Co-ASS, which includes the German abbreviation for aspirin, ASS. Clinical studies on aspirin and other non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) had indicated a correlation between the long-term intake of NSAIDs and positive effects for cancer patients (mainly concerning a substantial decrease of recidive risks), thereby making NSAIDs interesting candidates for chemoprevention and combination chemotherapy.²¹⁸ Based on these observations, the NSAID-like character of Co-ASS and related complexes was studied in more detail and appeared to contribute significantly to the activity of this lead compound.²¹⁷ Co-ASS strongly inhibits the NSAID main target enzymes COX-1 and COX-2²¹⁷ and, based on its good stability,²¹⁹ it could be concluded that the active species was indeed the intact organometallic complex. Recently, it was confirmed that Co-ASS exhibited several biochemical properties related to the reported antitumoral effects of NSAIDs including induction of apoptosis, inhibition of PGE_2 formation and triggering of anti-angiogenic effects.²²⁰ Interestingly, it could be shown that Co-ASS acetylated several lysine residues of its putative main target COX-2 in contrast to aspirin, which acetylates a serine residue in the active site of the enzyme.²²⁰

In this context, it should be noted that a COX-2 related mechanism, as present for Co-ASS, most probably does not exist for other hexacarbonyldicobalt species not containing NSAID derived ligands. A variety of hexacarbonyldicobalt species with interesting biological properties have been reported including nucleosides (e.g. **56**),²²¹ carbohydrates,²²² peptide derivatives (e.g. **57**)²²³ or complexes with hormonally active ligands (Figure 21).²²⁴⁻²²⁶ Based on the chemical structures of these compounds, it is very likely that different biological structures are targeted, and one might speculate that the $\text{Co}_2(\text{CO})_6$ moiety modifies the interaction with those biomolecules. Thus, for complexes with hormone derived ligands, it was demonstrated that the hormonal activity and the receptor binding was retained. For nucleoside ligand containing derivatives, preliminary studies indicated that the uptake of the compounds into the tumor cells might correlate with their cytotoxic activity. As a similar dependence was also observed for the uptake into the nuclei, it can be concluded that, for the nucleoside derivatives, a possible mode of action might involve an interaction with the DNA or the DNA related enzyme machinery.²²¹

Hormonal activity has also been described for metal CO complexes other than hexacarbonyldicobalt alkynes mainly by the group of Jaouen.^{227, 228} Thus, several metal carbonyl derivatives of estradiol or hydroxytamoxifen exhibited good estradiol receptor binding affinity and for some derivatives also anti-proliferative activity was observed. For example, hydroxytamoxifene derivatives containing a cyclopentadienyl metal tricarbonyl moiety (see **58**) were well recognized by both $\text{ER}\alpha$ and $\text{ER}\beta$ and triggered antiproliferative effects (see also metallocenes section above).²²⁷

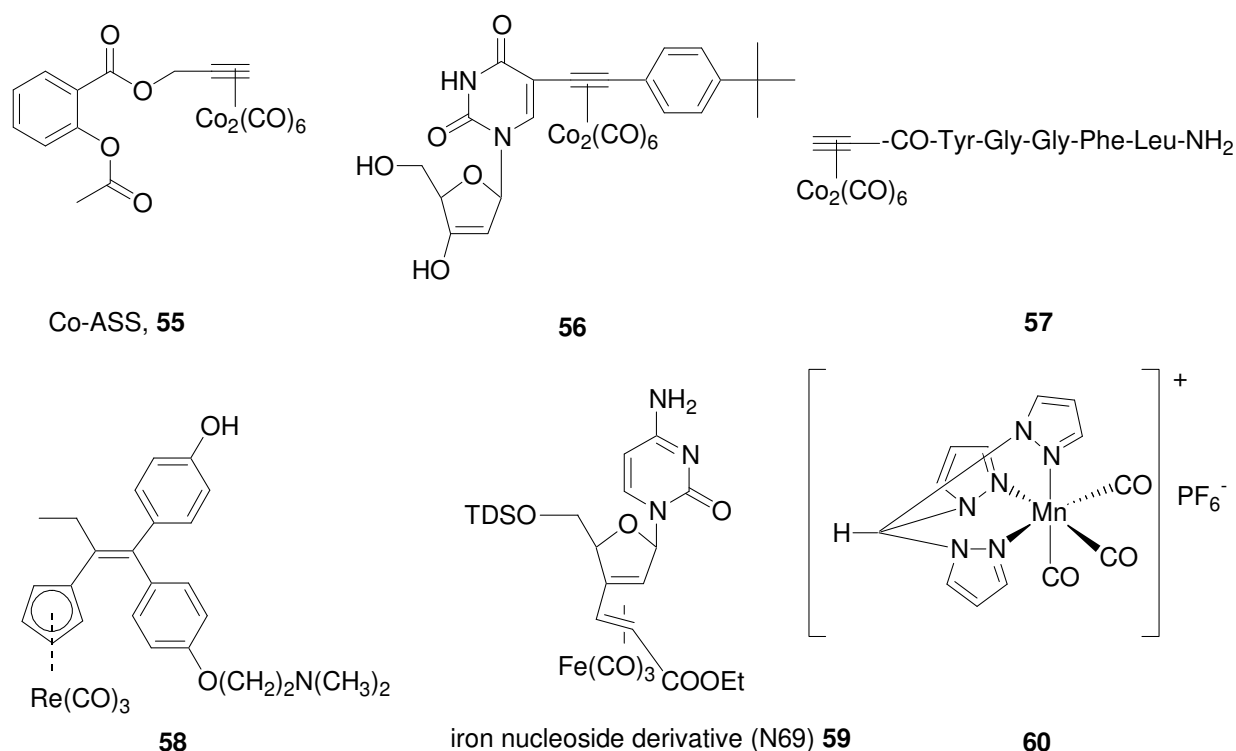


Figure 21. Metal CO complexes.

In the case of iron containing metal carbonyl complexes, especially nucleoside containing derivatives have been the subject of major attention. Thus, the iron CO complex N69 (**59** in Figure 21) significantly induced apoptosis in tumor cells but did not trigger unspecific necrotic effects (see also compound **2** in Figure 3).⁴⁰ These properties are highly relevant for further development of these compounds into suitable drug candidates. Additionally, further unspecific effects of the iron-diene unit could be ruled out as close analogues of the lead compound as well as the (non-iron containing) free ligand were not active.⁴⁰ Interestingly, the apoptosis induction in melanoma cells by **59** was independent of caspase activation but could be related to ROS formation. It was suggested that the N69-mediated ROS production could be due to its capacity as an iron donor with the nucleoside ligand functioning as a carrier.²²⁹

In the above mentioned examples, the structural influence of the CO ligands on the bioactivity and molecular receptor interaction is not clear so far but increasing evidence exists that the presence of these

ligands is crucial for the efficacy of the compounds. In this context, it is important to note that the position of a CO ligand in the active site of the target enzyme Pim-1 could be confirmed by X-ray crystallography for a staurosporine-derived ruthenium kinase inhibitor (see Figures 17 and 18 for more details on this class of complexes). From this crystal structure it is obvious that the CO ligand (together with a cyclopentadienyl ring) occupies a binding pocket in the active site of the enzyme, which is usually filled by the carbohydrate moiety of staurosporin.¹⁷⁵ Based on these data, it can be speculated that similar biomolecular target interactions might be relevant also for other metal CO complexes.

Besides their potential role in the molecular interaction with biological targets another relevant feature of CO complexes is their high lipophilicity, which led to increased cellular uptake levels in a number of studies.^{217, 221, 222} It can thus be additionally speculated that stable CO ligands trigger an enhanced bioactivity due to the fact that the cellular uptake of the (bioactive) ligand of the complex is increased.

An other interesting concept for the biomedical use of metal carbonyl species is the fact that the CO ligands can be released under appropriate conditions enabling the released carbon monoxide to trigger pharmacological effects.²³⁰ Thus, CO releasing properties have recently also been reported for hexacarbonyldicobalt complexes²³¹ and for manganese carbonyl derivatives photoinduced cytotoxic effects were observed (see **60**).²¹² These properties are elegantly used in a broader context by the design of carbon monoxide releasing molecules (CORMs), which might find future application in medicine due to their powerful vasodilatory, anti-inflammatory and anti-apoptotic properties. For a more detailed description of the group of CORMs the reader is referred to recent reviews on this topic.^{232, 233}

Metal carbonyl species have also shown potential for application as diagnostics. While this topic is also beyond the scope of this perspective the concept shall here be mentioned briefly: The fact that the intensive IR vibrations of the CO ligands are suitable for detection purposes found use in the so-called carbonyl metallo immuno assay (CMIA).²³⁴ For example, using this method it was possible to develop assays for the sensitive detection of hormones or antiepileptics and to obtain metal-carbonyl-dendrimer-antibody bioconjugates with a broad range of applications.²³⁵

Miscellaneous. Other strategies and ideas for the treatment of cancer involving the use of organometallics were recently employed by Therrien *et al.* They investigated the possibility to combine the chemotherapeutic activity of organometallics with photosensitizing agents for photodynamic therapy (PDT). With this in mind, they prepared a series of Ru(II) (**61**), Os(II) (**62**), Rh(III) (**63**) and Ir(III) (**64**) complexes containing porphyrin derivatives, which are known to be efficient photosensitizing agents (Figure 22).²³⁶ The photoactivation produces singlet oxygen and radical species which results in tumor cell death. All complexes had similar moderate cytotoxicity towards cancer cells with the exception of the Rh complex which was found to be non-toxic. Importantly, the Ru(II) complexes exhibit excellent phototoxicity towards melanoma cells when exposed to laser light at 652 nm.²³⁶ The exact mechanism of action of these Ru complexes is not yet determined but it has been shown by fluorescence microscopy that they were not accumulating in the nucleus suggesting a non-DNA mode of action. In a similar perspective, very recently, the same group described the use of sawhorse-type diruthenium tetracarbonyl complexes containing porphyrin-derived ligands as highly selective photosensitizers for female reproductive cancer cells.²³⁷

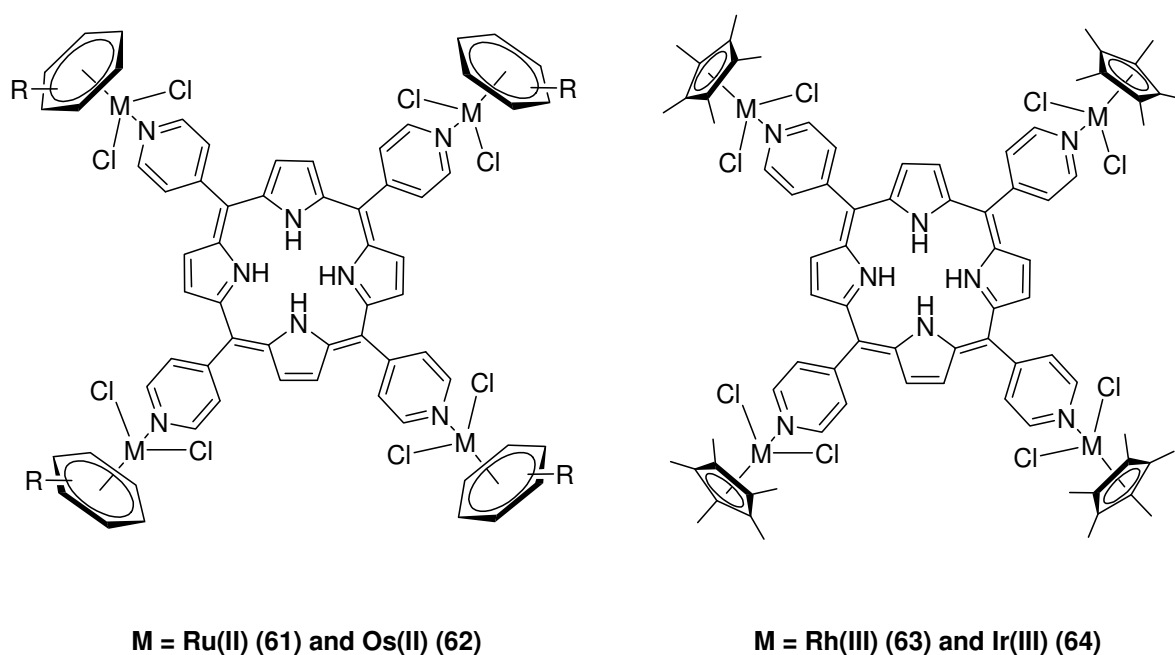


Figure 22. Example of Ru(II), Os(II), Rh(III) and Ir(III) organometallic porphyrin compounds.

It was also shown by the same group that the bridging of two Ru organometallics through a ferrocene moiety (**65**, Figure 23) increased considerably the cytotoxicity of the compounds compared to the monoruthenium analogue.²³⁸ A difference in redox-potential of the ferrocene units has been proposed as a possible cause of the increased cytotoxicity. Remarkably, these compounds were equally potent against cisplatin-resistant and non-resistant cell lines, which is indicative of a different mode of action from that of cisplatin.²³⁸ The concept of multinuclearity for the improvement of anticancer activity has also been demonstrated by Hartinger *et al.*²³⁹⁻²⁴¹

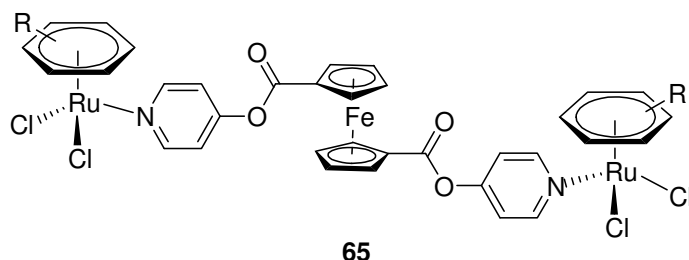


Figure 23. A di-arene ruthenium compound bridged by a ferrocene.²³⁸

Another original example of the use of organometallics for cancer therapy was to employ an “organometallic cage” to transport metal complexes, namely $[\text{Pd}(\text{acac})_2]$ and $[\text{Pt}(\text{acac})_2]$ (acac = acetylacetonato) into cancer cells “by encapsulation”. The trigonal-prismatic “cage” molecule consists of six half-sandwich (η^6 -arene)Ru (**66**, Figure 24) or (η^5 -pentamethylcyclopentadienyl)Rh units held together by two trigonally substituted triazine and additional chloro or oxalato bridges. Interestingly, once inside the cells, $[\text{Pd}(\text{acac})_2]$ or $[\text{Pt}(\text{acac})_2]$ are released and exert a cytotoxic effect.²⁴² It was shown that these cages were extremely stable, even at high temperatures. It was further demonstrated that the empty cage and the Pd and Pt complexes by themselves were less toxic than their “complex-in-a-complex”.²⁴² The exact mechanism of action for these compounds is still unknown but it is postulated that the organometallic cage facilitates the cellular uptake. The use of such metalla-boxes is currently being investigated in this group.²⁴³

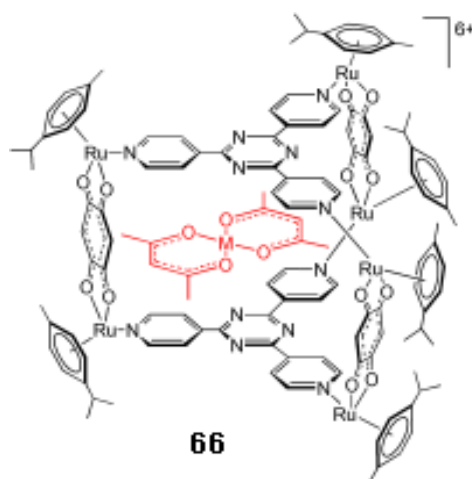


Figure 24. Structure of the “Complex-in-a-Complex” cations $[(\text{acac})_2\text{M}\text{Ru}_6(p\text{-}i\text{PrC}_6\text{H}_4\text{Me})_6(\text{tpt})_2(\text{dhbq})_3]^{6+}$ (**66**). Reproduced, by permission from the publisher, with modification from ref.²⁴²

Sadler, Brabec *et al.* also investigated the photoactivation of dinuclear ruthenium(II) arene complexes to trigger DNA binding and fluorescence.²⁴⁴ They showed that upon irradiation with UV-A light, some of their complexes underwent arene loss. Interestingly, the fluorescence of the unbound arene is roughly 40 times greater than when it is complexed to the Ru centre, therefore enabling to visualize the intracellular localization of the arene moiety. Furthermore, irradiation also had a significant effect on DNA binding in that the formed ruthenium adducts are strongly blocking RNA polymerase. These complexes therefore have the potential to combine both photoinduced cell death and fluorescence imaging of the location and efficiency of the photoactivation process.

Conclusion and Perspective.

In this perspective article, we summarized recent developments towards the use of organometallic compounds as anticancer drug candidates. The general notion that organometallic compounds would be sensitive to air and water and therefore unstable under physiological conditions and unsuitable for medicinal purposes has been disproved. Rather, our above analysis demonstrates a broad range of classes of compounds that are stable and well characterized for biological applications. Organometallic compounds are frequently kinetically inert and amenable to (multiple) derivatization reactions. They are thus suitable for conventional structure-based drug design, including computer docking experiments similar to the more traditional organic drug candidates. The successful development of ruthenium kinase inhibitors by Meggers and co-workers impressively demonstrates this capacity. A recent multi-step synthesis of chromium-based antibiotics modeled after the natural lead structure platensimycin further demonstrates that even complicated lead structures can be realized with organometallics cores.²¹⁰ Overcoming the long neglectance of these so-called bioorganometallics by both industrial and academic drug research, an increasing number of emerging drug classes impressively demonstrates that the field offers a broad variety of unexplored options for synthetic medicinal chemistry.

By combining modern organometallic synthesis with state-of-the-art biochemical studies, the field has advanced markedly from the rather crude “synthesis-and-cytotoxicity-screening” approach that was common just a few years ago. Organometallic chemists frequently collaborate with medicinal chemists, biochemists and molecular or cell biologists. Thereby arriving at the forefront of medicinal chemistry research, they employ the whole tool-box of modern medicinal chemistry research, including structural biology, computer-aided design, and biochemical and cell-based assays to gain a deep insight into possible cellular targets and the molecular details of target interactions. For a number of compounds, even *in vivo* testing is ongoing. We have pointed to prior and published *in vivo* work in the relevant sections, and more work is currently under way but not publicly available yet. However, we would certainly expect that this is the next frontier for medicinal organometallic chemistry, on the way to bring

at least some of the most promising organometallic drug candidates described herein as drugs to the market.

In this perspective, we have tried to emphasize such biochemical studies (where available) to elucidate molecular targets and modes of action. While it is clear that for many organometallic complexes interesting bioactivities were observed, the molecular modes of target interaction or the targets themselves are not perfectly clear for each class of compounds at this stage. It is clear, however, that DNA is *not* the target for most bioorganometallics and protein inhibition (e.g. cyclooxygenases or thioredoxin reductase) or other mechanisms (e.g. hormone receptor interaction) are major modes of action. Moreover, some metal complexes may even exhibit completely novel, *metal-specific* modes of action, such as the ferrocifen derivatives in which the metallocene acts as a redox antenna for intramolecular redox activation. Clearly, exploitation of the distinct properties of metal complexes for biologically active compounds deserves more attention. It is hoped that the advent of organometallic complexes in clinical trials will improve acceptance of such compounds in the pharmaceutical industry and support further research into the fascinating field of organometallic drugs and their biological targets.

Acknowledgement. The authors thank the Alexander von Humboldt Foundation (fellowship to G.G.), the Swiss National Science Foundation (Ambizione Grant PZ00P2_126404 to G.G.) and the Deutsche Forschungsgemeinschaft (DFG) for funding through the research unit “Biological Function of Organometallic Compounds” (FOR 630, www.rub.de/for630), as well as the COST Action D39 “Metallodrug Design and Action”.

Biography.

Gilles Gasser received his BSc Hons. in Chemistry in 2000 (University of Neuchâtel, Switzerland) and then worked for one year in the R&D division of the agro-pharmaceutical company Lonza Ltd. (Visp, Switzerland). Gilles returned to Neuchâtel to carry out a PhD in supramolecular chemistry with Prof. Helen Stoeckli-Evans (2001-2004), before heading south to undergo a post-doc in bioinorganic chemistry with Prof. Leone Spiccia (Monash University, Australia, 2004-2007). In 2007, Gilles was awarded an Alexander von Humboldt Fellowship that he undertook at the Ruhr-University Bochum (Germany) in Prof. Metzler-Nolte's group. Since 2010, Gilles has started his independent research group at the University of Zurich (Switzerland). His current research interests involve the use of metal complexes to understand, identify and/or influence biological processes in living cells.

Ingo Ott graduated in Pharmacy at the University of Innsbruck (Austria) in 1999, acquired the pharmacist's license ("Approbation") in 2000 and obtained his PhD in the group of Prof. R. Gust at Freie Universität Berlin (Germany) in 2004. Afterwards he focused on several projects in bioinorganic and bioorganometallic medicinal chemistry at the same institution and performed postdoctoral studies in the group of Prof. X. Qian at East China University of Science and Technology in Shanghai (China). In 2009 Ingo was appointed professor for pharmaceutical / medicinal chemistry at Technische Universität Braunschweig (Germany). His current research interests involve the development of novel anticancer therapeutics with a focus on bioinorganic and bioorganometallic compounds as well as the study of the biological functions of transition metal complexes in general.

Nils Metzler-Nolte obtained his PhD from LMU Munich in 1994, did a postdoc with Prof. M. L. H. Green in Oxford and started his independent research on Bioorganometallic Chemistry at the Max-Planck-Institut für Strahlenchemie (nowadays MPI for Bioinorganic Chemistry) in Mülheim. He was appointed associate professor at the University of Heidelberg in 2000, and full professor at Ruhr-

University Bochum in 2006. He is Speaker of the DFG-funded Research Unit "Biological Function of Organometallic Compounds", member of the COST Action D39 "Metallo drug Design and Action". He is a member of the international advisory boards of several journals. With research interests in medicinal organometallic chemistry and functional metal bioconjugates, the group is running a full program of inorganic synthesis through to cell biology.

References.

1. Jakupec, M. A.; Galanski, M.; Arion, V. B.; Hartinger, C. G.; Keppler, B. K. Antitumour metal compounds: more than theme and variations. *Dalton Trans.* **2008**, 2, 183-194.
2. Dyson, P. J.; Sava, G. Metal-based antitumour drugs in the post genomic area. *Dalton Trans.* **2006**, 1929-1933, and references therein.
3. Wang, D.; Lippard, S. J. Cellular processing of platinum anticancer drugs. *Nat. Rev. Drug. Discov.* **2005**, 4, 307-320.
4. Lippert, B. *Cisplatin, Chemistry and Biochemistry of a Leading Anticancer Drug*. Verlag Helvetica Chimica Acta: Zürich, 1999.
5. Hartinger, C.; Dyson, P. J. Bioorganometallic chemistry - from teaching paradigms to medicinal applications. *Chem. Soc. Rev.* **2009**, 38, 391-401.
6. Jaouen, G.; Dyson, P. J. Medicinal Organometallic Chemistry. In *Comprehensive Organometallic Chemistry III, From Fundamentals to Applications* Crabtree, R. H.; Mingos, D. M. P., Eds. Elsevier: Oxford, 2007; Vol. 12, pp 445-464.
7. Jaouen, G. *Bioorganometallics: Biomolecules, Labelling, Medicine*. Wiley-VCH Verlag GmbH, Weinheim: 2006.
8. Gianferrara, T.; Bratsos, I.; Alessio, E. A categorization of metal anticancer compounds based on their mode of action. *Dalton Trans.* **2009**, 7588-7598.
9. Alberto, R. Radiopharmaceuticals. In *Bioorganometallics: Biomolecules, Labeling, Medicine*, Jaouen, G., Ed. Wiley-VCH Verlag GmbH: Weinheim, 2006; pp 97-124.
10. Köpf, H.; Köpf-Maier, P. Titanocene dichloride--the first metallocene with cancerostatic activity. *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl.* **1979**, 18, 477-478.
11. Köpf-Maier, P.; Hesse, B.; Voigtländer, R.; Köpf, H. Tumor Inhibition by Metallocenes: Antitumor Activity of Titanocene Dihalides (C₅H₅)TiX₂ (X=F, Cl, Br, I, NCS) and Their

- Application in Buffered Solutions as a Method for Suppressing Drug-induced Side Effects. *J. Cancer Res. Clin. Oncol.* **1980**, 97, 31-39.
12. Köpf-Maier, P.; Köpf, H. Antitumor Metallocene oder ähnlich. *Drugs Future* **1986**, 11, 297-320.
 13. Köpf-Maier, P.; Köpf, H.; Neuse, E. W. Ferrocenium Salts - The First Antineoplastic Iron Compounds. *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed. Engl.* **1984**, 23, 456-457.
 14. Köpf-Maier, P.; Köpf, H. Non-Platinum-Group Metal Antitumor Agents: History, Current Status, and Perspectives. *Chem. Rev.* **1987**, 89, 1137-1152.
 15. Köpf-Maier, P.; Köpf, H. Transition and main-group metal cyclopentadienyl complexes: Preclinical studies on a series of antitumor agents of different structural type. *Struct. Bond.* **1988**, 70, 105-185.
 16. Hanzlik, R. P.; Soine, W. H. Enzymic hydroxylation of ferrocene. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **1978**, 100, 1290-1291.
 17. Dive, D.; Biot, C. Ferrocene Conjugates of Chloroquine and other Antimalarials: the Development of Ferroquine, a New Antimalarial. *ChemMedChem* **2008**, 3, 383-391.
 18. Biot, C.; Taramelli, D.; Forfar-Bares, I.; Maciejewski, L. A.; Boyce, M.; Nowogrocki, G.; Brocard, J. S.; Basilico, N.; Olliaro, P.; Egan, T. J. Insights into the Mechanism of Action of Ferroquine. Relationship between Physicochemical Properties and Antiplasmodial Activity. *Mol. Pharmaceutics* **2005**, 2, 185-193.
 19. Yeary, R. A. Chronic toxicity of dicyclopentadienyliron (ferrocene) in dogs. *Toxicology and Applied Pharmacology* **1969**, 15, 666-676.
 20. Mokdsi, G.; Harding, M. M. Inhibition of human topoisomerase II by the antitumor metallocenes. *J. Inorg. Biochem.* **2001**, 83, 205-209.
 21. Vashisht Gopal, Y. N.; Jayaraju, D.; Kondapi, A. K. Topoisomerase II Poisoning and Antineoplastic Action by DNA-Nonbinding Diacetyl and Dicarboxaldoxime of Ferrocene. *Arch. Biochem. Biophys.* **2000**, 376, 229-235.

22. Osella, D.; Ferrali, M.; Zanello, P.; Laschi, F.; Fontani, M.; Nervi, C.; Cavigliolo, G. On the mechanism of the antitumor activity of ferrocenium derivatives. *Inorg. Chim. Acta* **2000**, 306, 42-48.
23. Tamura, H.; Miwa, M. DNA Cleaving Activity and Cytotoxic Activity of Ferricenium Cations. *Chem. Lett.* **1997**, 26, 1177-1178.
24. Tabbi, G.; Cassino, C.; Cavigliolo, G.; Colangelo, D.; Ghiglia, A.; Viano, I.; Osella, D. Water stability and cytotoxic activity relationship of a series of ferrocenium derivatives. ESR insights on the radical production during the degradation process. *J. Med. Chem.* **2002**, 45, 5786-5796.
25. Salmain, M.; Metzler-Nolte, N. Bioorganometallic Chemistry of Ferrocene. In *Ferrocenes*, Stepnicka, P., Ed. John Wiley & Sons: Chichester, 2008; pp 499-639.
26. Caldwell, G.; Meirim, M. G.; Neuse, E. W.; van Rensburg, C. E. J. Antineoplastic Activity of Polyaspartamide-Ferrocene Conjugates. *Appl. Organomet. Chem.* **1998**, 12, 793-799.
27. Neuse, E. W. Polymeric Organoiron Compounds as Prodrugs in Cancer Research. *Macromol. Symp.* **2001**, 172, 127-138.
28. Neuse, E. W.; Kanzawa, F. Evaluation of the activity of some water-soluble ferrocene and ferricenium compounds against carcinoma of the lung by the human tumor clonogenic assay. *Appl. Organomet. Chem.* **1990**, 19-26.
29. Swarts, J. C.; Swarts, D. M.; Maree, D. M.; Neuse, E. W.; La Madeleine, C.; van Lier, J. E. Polyaspartamides as water-soluble drug carriers. Part 1: Antineoplastic activity of ferrocene-containing polyaspartamides. *Anticancer Res.* **2001**, 21, 2033-2038.
30. Johnson, M. T.; Kreft, E.; N'Da, D. D.; Neuse, E. W.; Rensburg, C. E. J. v. The Cytotoxicity of Macromolecular Ferrocene Conjugates against the Colo 320 DM Human Colon Cancer Line. *J. Inorg. Organomet. Polym.* **2003**, 13, 255-267.
31. Fiorina, V. J.; Dubois, R. J.; Brynes, S. Ferrocenyl Polyamines as Agents for the Chemoimmunotherapy of Cancer. *J. Med. Chem.* **1978**, 21, 393-395.

32. Neuse, E. W. Macromolecular Ferrocene Compounds as Cancer Drug Models. *J. Inorg. Organomet. Polym.* **2005**, 15, 3-32.
33. Kovavic, P.; Popp, W. J.; Ames, J. R.; Ryan, M. D. Anti-cancer action of metal complexes: electron transfer and oxidative stress? *Anti-Cancer Drug Design* **1988**, 3, 205-216.
34. Weissfloch, L.; Wagner, M.; Probst, T.; Senekowitsch-Schmidtke, R.; Tempel, K.; Molls, M. A new class of drugs for BNCT? Borylated derivatives of ferrocenium compounds in animal experiments. *BioMetals* **2001**, 14, 43-49.
35. Houlton, A.; Roberts, R. M. G.; Silver, G. Studies on the anti-tumor activity of some iron sandwich compounds. *J. Organomet. Chem.* **1991**, 418, 107-112.
36. Ong, C.-W.; Jeng, J.-Y.; Juang, S.-S.; Chen, C.-F. A ferrocene-intercalator conjugate with a potent cytotoxicity. *Bioorg. Med. Chem. Lett.* **1992**, 2, 929-932.
37. Ferle-Vidovic, A.; Poljak-Blazi, M.; Rasic, V.; Skare, D. Ferrocenes (F168, F169) and Fero-Sorbitol-Citrate (FSC): Potential Anticancer Drugs. *Cancer Biother. Radiopharm.* **2000**, 15, 617-624.
38. Motohashi, N.; Meyer, R.; Gollapudi, S. R.; Bhattiprolu, K. R. Synthesis and activity of potential antitumor ferrocenes. *J. Organomet. Chem.* **1990**, 398, 205-217.
39. James, P.; Neudörfl, J.; Eissmann, M.; Jesse, P.; Prokop, A.; Schmalz, H.-G. Enantioselective Synthesis of Ferrocenyl Nucleoside Analogues with Apoptosis-Inducing Activity. *Org. Lett.* **2006**, 8, 2763-2766.
40. Schlawe, D.; Majdalani, A.; Velcicky, J.; Hessler, E.; Wieder, T.; Prokop, A.; Schmalz, H. G. Iron-containing nucleoside analogues with pronounced apoptosis-inducing activity. *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* **2004**, 43, 1731-1734.
41. Velcicky, J.; Lanver, A.; Lex, J.; Prokop, A.; Wieder, T.; Schmalz, H.-G. Cytostatische Wirkung von Eisen-Nucleosidanaloga / Mechanismus. *Chem. Eur. J.* **2004**, 10, 5087-5110.

42. Schatzschneider, U.; Metzler-Nolte, N. New principles in medicinal organometallic chemistry. *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* **2006**, 45, 1504-1507.
43. Nguyen, A.; Vessieres, A.; Hillard, E. A.; Top, S.; Pigeon, P.; Jaouen, G. Ferrocifens and ferrocifenols as new potential weapons against breast cancer. *Chimia* **2007**, 61, 716-724.
44. Jaouen, G.; Top, S.; Vessieres, A.; Leclercq, G.; McGlinchey, M. J. The First Organometallic Selective Estrogen Receptor Modulators (SERMs) and Their Relevance to Breast Cancer. *Curr. Med. Chem.* **2004**, 11, 2505-2517.
45. Pigeon, P.; Top, S.; Vessières, A.; Huché, M.; Hillard, E.; Salomon, E.; Jaouen, G. Metallderivate von ferrocifen. *J. Med. Chem.* **2005**, 48, 2814-2821.
46. Top, S.; Kaloun, E. B.; Vessières, A.; Laios, I.; Leclercq, G.; Jaouen, G. Titanocen-derivate von Tamoxifen. *J. Organomet. Chem.* **2002**, 643-644, 350-356.
47. Hillard, E. V., Anne; Thouin, Laurent; Jaouen, Gerard; Amatore, Christian. Ferrocene-Mediated Proton-Coupled Electron Transfer in a Series of Ferrocifen-Type Breast-Cancer Drug Candidates. *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* **2006**, 45, 285-290.
48. Zekri, O.; Hillard, E. A.; Top, S.; Vessieres, A.; Pigeon, P.; Plamont, M.-A.; Huche, M.; Boutamine, S.; McGlinchey, M. J.; Mueller-Bunz, H.; Jaouen, G. Role of aromatic substituents on the antiproliferative effects of diphenyl ferrocenyl butene compounds. *Dalton Trans.* **2009**, 4318-4326.
49. Nguyen, A.; Top, S.; Pigeon, P.; Vessieres, A.; Hillard, E. A.; Plamont, M.-A.; Huche, M.; Rigamonti, C.; Jaouen, G. Synthesis and structure-activity relationships of ferrocenyl tamoxifen derivatives with modified side chains. *Chem. Eur. J.* **2009**, 15, 684-696.
50. Heilmann, J. B.; Hillard, E. A.; Plamont, M.-A.; Pigeon, P.; Bolte, M.; Jaouen, G.; Vessieres, A. Ferrocenyl compounds possessing protected phenol and thiophenol groups: Synthesis, X-ray structure, and in vitro biological effects against breast cancer. *J. Organomet. Chem.* **2008**, 693, 1716-1722.

51. Nguyen, A.; Top, S.; Vessieres, A.; Pigeon, P.; Huche, M.; Hillard, E. A.; Jaouen, G. Organometallic analogues of tamoxifen: Effect of the amino side-chain replacement by a carbonyl ferrocenyl moiety in hydroxytamoxifen. *J. Organomet. Chem.* **2007**, 692, 1219-1225.
52. Hillard, E. A.; Pigeon, P.; Vessieres, A.; Amatore, C.; Jaouen, G. The influence of phenolic hydroxy substitution on the electron transfer and anti-cancer properties of compounds based on the 2-ferrocenyl-1-phenyl-but-1-ene motif. *Dalton Trans.* **2007**, 5073-5081.
53. Vessieres, A.; Top, S.; Beck, W.; Hillard, E.; Jaouen, G. Metal complex SERMs (selective oestrogen receptor modulators). The influence of different metal units on breast cancer cell antiproliferative effects. *Dalton Trans.* **2006**, 529-541.
54. Mertins, O.; Buriez, O.; Labbe, E.; Fang, P.-P.; Hillard, E.; Vessieres, A.; Jaouen, G.; Tian, Z.-Q.; Amatore, C. Further insights into hydrophobic interactions between ferrocenyl-tamoxifen drugs and non-polar molecular architectures at electrode surfaces. *J. Electroanal. Chem.* **2009**, 635, 13-19.
55. Hillard, E. A.; de Abreu, F. C.; Ferreira, D. C. M.; Jaouen, G.; Goulart, M. O. F.; Amatore, C. Electrochemical parameters and techniques in drug development, with an emphasis on quinones and related compounds. *Chem. Commun.* **2008**, 2612-2628.
56. Buriez, O.; Labbe, E.; Pigeon, P.; Jaouen, G.; Amatore, C. Electrochemical attachment of a conjugated amino-ferrocifen complex onto carbon and metal surfaces. *J. Electroanal. Chem.* **2008**, 619-620, 169-175.
57. Osella, D.; Mahboobi, H.; Colangelo, D.; Cavigiolio, G.; Vessieres, A.; Jaouen, G. FACS analysis of oxidative stress induced on tumour cells by SERMs. *Inorg. Chim. Acta* **2005**, 358, 1993-1998.
58. Hillard, E.; Vessièrès, A.; Le Bideau, F.; Plazuk, D.; Spera, D.; Huché, M.; Jaouen, G. A Series of Unconjugated Ferrocenyl Phenols: Prospects as Anticancer Agents. *ChemMedChem* **2006**, 1, 551-559.

59. Vessieres, A.; Top, S.; Pigeon, P.; Hillard, E.; Boubeker, L.; Spera, D.; Jaouen, G. Modification of the Estrogenic Properties of Diphenols by the Incorporation of Ferrocene. Generation of Antiproliferative Effects in Vitro. *J. Med. Chem.* **2005**, 48, 3937-3940.
60. Nguyen, A.; Marsaud, V.; Bouclier, C.; Top, S.; Vessieres, A.; Pigeon, P.; Gref, R.; Legrand, P.; Jaouen, G.; Renoir, J.-M. Nanoparticles loaded with ferrocenyl tamoxifen derivatives for breast cancer treatment. *Int. J. Pharm.* **2008**, 347, 128-135.
61. Allard, E.; Huynh, N. T.; Vessieres, A.; Pigeon, P.; Jaouen, G.; Benoit, J. P.; Passirani, C. Dose effect activity of ferrocifen-loaded lipid nanocapsules on a 9L-glioma model. *Int. J. Pharm.* **2009**, 379, 317-323.
62. Allard, E.; Passirani, C.; Garcion, E.; Pigeon, P.; Vessieres, A.; Jaouen, G.; Benoit, J.-P. Lipid nanocapsules loaded with an organometallic tamoxifen derivative as a novel drug-carrier system for experimental malignant gliomas. *J. Controlled Release* **2008**, 130, 146-153.
63. Buriez, O.; Heldt, J. M.; Labbe, E.; Vessieres, A.; Jaouen, G.; Amatore, C. Reactivity and antiproliferative activity of ferrocenyl-tamoxifen adducts with cyclodextrins against hormone-independent breast-cancer cell lines. *Chem. Eur. J.* **2008**, 14, 8195-8203.
64. Arezki, A.; Brule, E.; Jaouen, G. Synthesis of the First Ferrocenyl Derivatives of Curcuminoids. *Organometallics* **2009**, 28, 1606-1609.
65. Top, S.; Thibaudeau, C.; Vessieres, A.; Brule, E.; Le Bideau, F.; Joerger, J.-M.; Plamont, M.-A.; Samreth, S.; Edgar, A.; Marrot, J.; Herson, P.; Jaouen, G. Synthesis and Structure Activity Relationship of Organometallic Steroidal Androgen Derivatives. *Organometallics* **2009**, 28, 1414-1424.
66. Payen, O.; Top, S.; Vessieres, A.; Brule, E.; Plamont, M.-A.; McGlinchey, M. J.; Mueller-Bunz, H.; Jaouen, G. Synthesis and Structure-Activity Relationships of the First Ferrocenyl-Aryl-Hydantoin Derivatives of the Nonsteroidal Antiandrogen Nilutamide. *J. Med. Chem.* **2008**, 51, 1791-1799.

67. Spencer, J.; Mendham, A. P.; Kotha, A. K.; Richardson, S. C. W.; Hillard, E. A.; Jaouen, G.; Male, L.; Hursthouse, M. B. Structural and biological investigation of ferrocene-substituted 3-methylidene-1,3-dihydro-2H-indol-2-ones. *Dalton Trans.* **2009**, 918-921.
68. Plazuk, D.; Vessieres, A.; Hillard, E. A.; Buriez, O.; Labbe, E.; Pigeon, P.; Plamont, M.-A.; Amatore, C.; Zakrzewski, J.; Jaouen, G. A [3]Ferrocenophane Polyphenol Showing a Remarkable Antiproliferative Activity on Breast and Prostate Cancer Cell Lines. *J. Med. Chem.* **2009**, 52, 4964-4967.
69. Murray, J. H.; Harding, M. M. Organometallic Anticancer Agents: The Effect of the Central Metal and Halide Ligands on the Interaction of Metallocene Dihalides Cp_2MX_2 with Nucleic Acid Constituents. *J. Med. Chem.* **1994**, 37, 1936-1941.
70. Harding, M., M.; Mokdsi, G. Review über Titanocen-dichlorid Reaktionen mit allen möglichen Biomolekülen. *Curr. Med. Chem.* **2000**, 7, 1289-1303.
71. Mross, K.; Robben-Bathe, P.; Edler, L.; Baumgart, J.; Berdel, W. E.; Fiebig, H.; Unger, C. Phase I clinical trial of a Day-1, -3, -5 every 3 weeks schedule with titanocene dichloride (MKT 5) in patients with advanced cancer. *Onkologie* **2000**, 23, 576-579.
72. Guo, M.; Guo, Z.; Sadler, P. J. Ti(IV) targets phosphoesters on nucleotides: implications for the mechanism of action of anticancer drug titanocene dichloride. *J. Biol. Inorg. Chem.* **2001**, 6, 698–707.
73. Mokdsi, G.; Harding, M. M. Topoisomerase II Inhibition by the Antitumor Metallocenes. *J. Inorg. Biochem.* **2001**, 83, 205–209.
74. Cristodoulou, C. V.; Eliopoulos, A. G.; Young, L. S.; Hodgkins, L.; Ferry, D. R.; Kerr, D. J. Anti-proliferative activity and mechanism of action of titanocene dichloride. *Br. J. Cancer* **1998**, 77, 2088-2097.

75. Sun, H.; Li, H.; Weir, R. A.; Sadler, P. J. Der erste spezifische Ti(IV)-Protein-Komplex mit potentieller Bedeutung für die Antitumorwirkung von Titanocenen. *Angew. Chem.* **1998**, 110, 1622-1625.
76. Tacke, M. The Interaction of Titanocene Y with Double-Stranded DNA: A Computational Study. *Lett. Drug Design Disc.* **2008**, 5, 332-335.
77. Allen, O. R.; Croll, L.; Gott, A. L.; Knox, R. J.; McGowan, P. C. *Organometallics* **2004**, 23, 288-292.
78. Tacke, M.; Allen, L. T.; Cuffe, L.; Gallagher, W. M.; Lou, Y.; Mendoza, O.; Müller-Bunz, H.; Rehmann, F. J. K.; Sweeney, N. Cytotoxische ansa-Metallocene. *J. Organomet. Chem.* **2004**, 689, 2242-2249.
79. Tacke, M.; Cuffe, L.; Gallagher, M. K.; Lou, Y.; Mendoza, O.; Müller-Bunz, H.; Rehmann, F. J. K.; Sweeney, N. cytotoxische ansa-Metallocene. *J. Inorg. Biochem.* **2004**, 98, 1987-1994.
80. Strohfeltdt, K.; Tacke, M. *Chem. Soc. Rev.* **2008**, 37, 1174-1187.
81. Kelter, G.; Sweeney, N. J.; Strohfeltdt, K.; Fiebig, H.-H.; Tacke, M. In-vitro anti-tumor activity studies of bridged and unbridged benzyl-substituted titanocenes. *Anti-Cancer Drugs* **2005**, 16, 1091-1098.
82. Beckhove, P.; Oberschmidt, O.; Hanauske, A.-R.; Pampillón, C.; Schirmmacher, V.; Sweeney, N. J.; Strohfeltdt, K.; Tacke, M. Antitumor activity of Titanocene Y against freshly explanted human breast tumor cells and in xenografted MCF-7 tumors in mice. *Anti-Cancer Drugs* **2007**, 18, 311-315.
83. Oberschmidt, O.; Hanauske, A. R.; Pampillón, C.; Sweeney, N. J.; Strohfeltdt, K.; Tacke, M. Antiproliferative activity of Titanocene Y against tumor colony-forming units. *Anti-Cancer Drugs* **2008**, 18, 317-321.
84. Fichtner, I.; Pampillón, C.; Sweeney, N. J.; Strohfeltdt, K.; Tacke, M. Anti-tumor activity of Titanocene Y in xenografted Caki-1 tumors in mice. *Anti-Cancer Drugs* **2006**, 17, 333-336.

85. Dowling, C. M.; Claffey, J.; Cuffe, S.; Fichtner, I.; Pampillón, C.; Sweeney, N. J.; Strohfeltdt, K.; Watson, R. W. G.; Tacke, M. Antitumor Activity of Titanocene Y In Xenografted PC3 Tumors in Mice. *Lett. Drug Design Disc.* **2008**, 5, 141-144.
86. Weber, H.; Claffey, J.; Hogan, M.; Pampillon, C.; Tacke, M. Analyses of Titanocenes in the spheroid-based cellular angiogenesis assay. *Toxicol. in Vitro* **2008**, 22, 531-534.
87. Bannon, J. H.; Fichtner, I.; O'Neill, A.; Pampillon, C.; Sweeney, N. J.; Strohfeltdt, K.; Watson, R. W.; Tacke, M.; Mc Gee, M. M. Substituted titanocenes induce caspase-dependent apoptosis in human epidermoid carcinoma cells in vitro and exhibit antitumour activity in vivo. *Br. J. Cancer* **2007**, 97, 1234-1241.
88. O'Connor, K.; Gill, C.; Tacke, M.; Rehmann, F. J. K.; Strohfeltdt, K.; Sweeney, N.; Fitzpatrick, J. M.; Watson, R. W. G. Novel titanocene anti-cancer drugs and their effect on apoptosis and the apoptotic pathway in prostate cancer cells. *Apoptosis* **2006**, 11, 1205-1214.
89. Fichtner, I.; Behrens, D.; Claffey, J.; Gleeson, B.; Hogan, M.; Wallis, D.; Weber, H.; Tacke, M. Antitumor activity of Oxali-Titanocene Y in xenografted CAKI-1 tumors in mice. *Lett. Drug Des. Discovery* **2008**, 5, 489-493.
90. Claffey, J.; Hogan, M.; Muller-Bunz, H.; Pampillon, C.; Tacke, M. Oxali-titanocene Y: a potent anticancer drug. *ChemMedChem* **2008**, 3, 729-731.
91. Wallis, D.; Claffey, J.; Gleeson, B.; Hogan, M.; Mueller-Bunz, H.; Tacke, M. Novel zirconocene anticancer drugs? *J. Organomet. Chem.* **2009**, 694, 828-833.
92. Gleeson, B.; Claffey, J.; Hogan, M.; Mueller-Bunz, H.; Wallis, D.; Tacke, M. Novel benzyl-substituted vanadocene anticancer drugs. *J. Organomet. Chem.* **2009**, 694, 1369-1374.
93. Gleeson, B.; Claffey, J.; Deally, A.; Hogan, M.; Mendez, L. M. M.; Mueller-Bunz, H.; Patil, S.; Wallis, D.; Tacke, M. Synthesis and Cytotoxicity Studies of Fluorinated Derivatives of Vanadocene Y. *Eur. J. Inorg. Chem.* **2009**, 2804-2810.

94. Gleeson, B.; Claffey, J.; Ertler, D.; Hogan, M.; Mueller-Bunz, H.; Paradisi, F.; Wallis, D.; Tacke, M. Novel organotin antibacterial and anticancer drugs. *Polyhedron* **2008**, 27, 3619-3624.
95. Kuo, L. Y.; G., K. M.; Marks, T. J. Metallocene Antitumor Agents. Unusual $\text{Mo}(\eta^5\text{-C}_5\text{H}_5)_2\text{Cl}_2$ Nucleotide / Nucleobase Aqueous Coordination Chemistry. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **1987**, 109, 7207-7209.
96. Kuo, L. Y.; Kanatzidis, M. G.; Sabat, M.; Tipton, A. L.; Marks, T. J. Metallocene Antitumor Agents. Solution and Solid-State Molybdocene Coordination Chemistry of DNA Constituents. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **1991**, 113, 9027-9045.
97. Kuo, L. Y.; Liu, A. H.; Marks, T. J. Metallocene Interactions with DNA and DNA-Processing Enzymes. In *Metal Ions in Biological Systems*, Sigel, H., Ed. Marcel Decker Publ.: New York, 1996; pp 53-85.
98. Harding, M. M.; Prodigalidad, M.; Lynch, M. J. Organometallic anticancer agents. 2. Aqueous chemistry and interaction of niobocene dichloride with nucleic acid constituents and amino acids. *J. Med. Chem.* **1996**, 39, 5012-5016.
99. Harding, M. M.; Harden, G. J.; Field, L. D. A ^{31}P NMR study of the interaction of the antitumor active metallocene Cp_2MoCl_2 with calf thymus DNA. *FEBS Lett.* **1993**, 322, 291-294.
100. Waern, J. B.; Harding, M. M. Bioorganometallic chemistry of molybdocene dichloride. *J. Organomet. Chem.* **2004**, 689, 4655-4668.
101. Waern, J. B.; Dillon, C. T.; Harding, M. M. Organometallic Anticancer Agents: Cellular Uptake and Cytotoxicity Studies on Thiol Derivatives of the Antitumor Agent Molybdocene Dichloride. *J. Med. Chem.* **2005**, 48, 2093-2099.
102. Waern, J. B.; Harris, H. H.; Lai, B.; Cai, Z.; Harding, M. M.; Dillon, C. T. Intracellular mapping of the distribution of metals derived from the antitumor metallocenes. *J. Biol. Inorg. Chem.* **2005**, 10, 443-452.

103. Dale, L. D.; Tocher, J. H.; Dyson, T. M.; Edwards, D. I.; Tocher, D. A. Studies on DNA damage and induction of SOS repair by novel multifunctional bio-reducible compounds. II. A metronidazole adduct of a ruthenium-arene compound. *Anti-Cancer Drug Des.* **1992**, 7, 3-14.
104. Malina, J.; Novakova, O.; Keppler, B. K.; Alessio, E.; Brabec, V. Biophysical analysis of natural, double-helical DNA modified by anticancer heterocyclic complexes of ruthenium(III) in cell-free media. *J. Biol. Inorg. Chem.* **2001**, 6, 435-445.
105. Bacac, M.; Hotze, A. C. G.; van der Schilden, K.; Haasnoot, J. G.; Pacor, S.; Alessio, E.; Sava, G.; Reedijk, J. The hydrolysis of the anti-cancer ruthenium complex NAMI-A affects its DNA binding and antimetastatic activity: an NMR evaluation. *J. Inorg. Biochem.* **2004**, 98, 402-412.
106. Schluga, P.; Hartinger, C. G.; Egger, A.; Reisner, E.; Galanski, M.; Jakupec, M. A.; Keppler, B. K. Redox behavior of tumor-inhibiting ruthenium(III) complexes and effects of physiological reductants on their binding to GMP. *Dalton Trans.* **2006**, 1796-1802.
107. Gallori, E.; Vettori, C.; Alessio, E.; Vilchez, F. G.; Vilaplana, R.; Orioli, P.; A., C.; Messori, L. DNA as a possible target for antitumor ruthenium(III) complexes. *Arch. Biochem. Biophys.* **2000**, 376, 156-162.
108. Yan, Y. K.; Melchart, M.; Habtemariam, A.; Sadler, P. J. Organometallic chemistry, biology and medicine: ruthenium arene anticancer complexes. *Chem. Comm.* **2005**, 38, 4764-4776.
109. Hartinger, C. G.; Zorbas-Seifried, S.; Jakupec, M. A.; Kynast, B.; Zorbas, H.; Keppler, B. K. From bench to bedside--preclinical and early clinical development of the anticancer agent indazolium trans-[tetrachlorobis(1H-indazole)ruthenate(III)] (KP1019 or FFC14A). *J. Inorg. Biochem.* **2006**, 100, 891-904.
110. Wang, F.; Chen, H.; Parsons, S.; Oswald, I. D. H.; Davidson, J. E.; Sadler, P. J. Kinetics of aquation and anation of ruthenium(II) arene anticancer complexes, acidity and X-ray structures of aqua adducts. *Chem. Eur. J.* **2003**, 9, 5810-5820.

111. Novakova, O.; Chen, H.; Vrana, O.; Rodger, A.; Sadler, P. J.; Brabec, V. DNA Interactions of Monofunctional Organometallic Ruthenium(II) Antitumor Complexes in Cell-free Media. *Biochemistry* **2003**, 42, 11544-11554.
112. Liu, H.-K.; Wang, F.; Parkinson, J. A.; Bella, J.; Sadler, P. J. Ruthenation of duplex and single-stranded d(CGGCCG) by organometallic anticancer complexes. *Chem. Eur. J.* **2006**, 12, 6151-6165.
113. Wang, F.; Xu, J.; Habtemariam, A.; Bella, J.; Sadler, P. J. Competition between Glutathione and Guanine for a Ruthenium(II) Arene Anticancer Complex: Detection of a Sulfenato Intermediate. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **2005**, 127, 17734-17743.
114. Schaefer, S.; Ott, I.; Gust, R.; Sheldrick, W. S. Influence of the polypyridyl (pp) ligand size on the DNA binding properties, cytotoxicity and cellular uptake of organoruthenium(II) complexes of the type $[(\eta^6\text{-C}_6\text{Me}_6)\text{Ru}(\text{L})(\text{pp})]^{n+}$ (L = Cl, n = 1; L = (NH₂)₂CS, n = 2). *Eur. J. Inorg. Chem.* **2007**, 3034-3046.
115. Egger, A.; Arion, V. B.; Reisner, E.; Cebrian-Losantos, B.; Shova, S.; Trettenhahn, G.; Keppler, B. K. Reactions of Potent Antitumor Complex trans-[RuIIICl4(indazole)2]- with a DNA-Relevant Nucleobase and Thioethers: Insight into Biological Action. *Inorg. Chem.* **2005**, 44, 122-132.
116. Chen, H.; Parkinson, J. A.; Novakova, O.; Bella, J.; Wang, F.; Dawson, A.; Gould, R.; Parsons, S.; Brabec, V.; Sadler, P. J. Induced-fit recognition of DNA by organometallic complexes with dynamic stereogenic centers. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A* **2003**, 100, 14623-14628.
117. Scolaro, C.; Chaplin, A. B.; Hartinger, C. G.; Bergamo, A.; Cocchietto, M.; Keppler, B. K.; Sava, G.; Dyson, P. J. Tuning the hydrophobicity of ruthenium(II)-arene (RAPTA) drugs to modify uptake, biomolecular interactions and efficacy. *Dalton Trans.* **2007**, 43, 5065-5072.
118. Ravera, M.; Baracco, S.; Cassino, C.; Colangelo, D.; Bagni, G.; Sava, G.; Osella, D. Electrochemical measurements confirm the preferential bonding of the antimetastatic complex

- [ImH][RuCl(4)(DMSO)(Im)] (NAMI-A) with proteins and the weak interaction with nucleobases. *J. Inorg. Biochem.* **2004**, 98, 984-990.
119. Novakova, O.; Kasparkova, J.; Bursova, V.; Hofr, C.; Vojtiskova, M.; Chen, H.; Sadler, P. J.; Brabec, V. Conformation of DNA Modified by Monofunctional Ru(II) Arene Complexes: Recognition by DNA Binding Proteins and Repair. Relationship to Cytotoxicity. *Chem. Biol.* **2005**, 12, 121-129.
 120. Melchart, M.; Sadler, P. J. Ruthenium arene anticancer complexes. In *Bioorganometallics*, Jaouen, G., Ed. Wiley-VCH: Weinheim, 2006; pp 39-64.
 121. Peacock, A. F. A.; Sadler, P. J. Medicinal organometallic chemistry: designing metal arene complexes as anticancer agents. *Chem. Asian J.* **2008**, 3, 1890-1899.
 122. Dougan, S. J.; Sadler, P. J. The design of organometallic ruthenium arene anticancer agents. *Chimia* **2007**, 61, 704-715.
 123. Süss-Fink, G. Arene ruthenium complexes as anticancer agents. *Dalton Trans.* **2010**, 39, 1673-1688.
 124. Aird, R. E.; Cummings, J.; Ritchie, A. A.; Muir, M.; Morris, R. E.; Chen, H.; Sadler, P. J.; Jodrell, D. I. In vitro and in vivo activity and cross resistance profiles of novel ruthenium (II) organometallic arene complexes in human ovarian cancer. *Br. J. Cancer* **2002**, 86, 1652-1657.
 125. Deubel, D. V.; Lau, J. K.-C. In silico evolution of substrate selectivity: comparison of organometallic ruthenium complexes with the anticancer drug cisplatin. *Chem. Comm.* **2006**, 23, 2451-2453.
 126. Allardyce, C. S.; Dyson, P. J.; Ellis, D. J.; Heath, S. L. [Ru(η^6 -cymene-p)Cl₂(pta)] (pta = 1,3,5-triaza-7-phosphatricyclo[3.3.1.1]decane): a water soluble compound that exhibits pH dependent DNA binding providing selectivity for diseased cells. *Chem. Comm.* **2001**, 1396-1397.

127. Gossens, C.; Dorcier, A.; Dyson, P. J.; Rothlisberger, U. pKa Estimation of ruthenium(II)-arene PTA complexes and their hydrolysis products via a DFT/continuum electrostatics approach. *Organometallics* **2007**, 26, 3969-3975.
128. Ang, W. H.; Daldini, E.; Scolaro, C.; Scopelliti, R.; Juillerat-Jeannerat, L.; Dyson, P. J. Development of organometallic ruthenium-arene anticancer drugs that resist hydrolysis. *Inorg. Chem.* **2006**, 45, 9006-9013.
129. Scolaro, C.; Bergamo, A.; Brescacin, L.; Delfino, R.; Cocchietto, M.; Laurenczy, G.; Geldbach, T. J.; Sava, G.; Dyson, P. J. In vitro and in vivo evaluation of ruthenium(II)-arene PTA complexes. *J. Med. Chem.* **2005**, 48, 4161-4171.
130. Casini, A.; Mastrobuoni, G.; Ang, W. H.; Gabbiani, C.; Pieraccini, G.; Moneti, G.; Dyson, P. J.; Messori, L. ESI-MS Characterisation of Protein Adducts of Anticancer Ruthenium(II)-Arene PTA (RAPTA) Complexes. *ChemMedChem* **2007**, 2, 631-635.
131. Casini, A.; Gabbiani, C.; Michelucci, E.; Pieraccini, G.; Moneti, G.; Dyson, P. J.; Messori, L. Exploring metallodrug-protein interactions by mass spectrometry: comparisons between platinum coordination complexes and an organometallic ruthenium compound. *J. Biol. Inorg. Chem.* **2009**, 14, 761-770.
132. Casini, A.; Gabbiani, C.; Sorrentino, F.; Rigobello, M. P.; Bindoli, A.; Geldbach, T. J.; Marrone, A.; Re, N.; Hartinger, C. G.; Dyson, P. J.; Messori, L. Emerging protein targets for anticancer metal-lodrugs: inhibition of thioredoxin reductase and cathepsin B by antitumor ruthenium(II)-arene compounds. *J. Med. Chem.* **2008**, 51, 6773-6781.
133. Vock, C. A.; Ang, W. H.; Scolaro, C.; Phillips, A. D.; Lagopoulos, L.; Juillerat-Jeanneret, L.; Sava, G.; Scopelliti, R.; Dyson, P. J. Development of Ruthenium Antitumor Drugs that Overcome Multidrug Resistance Mechanisms. *J. Med. Chem.* **2007**, 50, 2166-2175.

134. Ang, W. H.; Parker, L. J.; De Luca, A.; Juillerat-Jeanneret, L.; Morton, C. J.; Lo Bello, M.; Parker, M. W.; Dyson, P. J. Rational Design of an Organometallic Glutathione Transferase Inhibitor. *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* **2009**, 48, 3854-3857.
135. Ang, W. H.; De Luca, A.; Chapuis-Bernasconi, C.; Juillerat-Jeanneret, L.; Lo Bello, M.; Dyson, P. J. Organometallic Ruthenium Inhibitors of Glutathione-S-Transferase P1-1 as Anticancer Drugs. *ChemMedChem* **2007**, 2, 1799-1806.
136. Rajapakse, C. S. K.; Martínez, A.; Naoulou, B.; Jarzecki, A. A.; Suárez, L.; Deregnaucourt, C.; Sinou, V.; Schrével, J.; Musi, E.; Ambrosini, G.; Schwartz, G. K.; Sánchez-Delgado, R. A. Synthesis, Characterization, and in vitro Antimalarial and Antitumor Activity of New Ruthenium(II) Complexes of Chloroquine. *Inorg. Chem.* **2009**, 48, 1122-1131, and references therein.
137. Biot, C.; Glorian, G.; Maciejewski, L. A.; Brocard, J. Synthesis and Antimalarial Activity in Vitro and in Vivo of a New Ferrocene–Chloroquine Analogue. *J. Med. Chem.* **1997**, 40, 3715-3718.
138. Will, J.; Kyas, A.; Sheldrick, W. S.; Wolters, D. Identification of (η^6 -arene)ruthenium(II) protein binding sites in *E. coli* cells by combined multidimensional liquid chromatography and ESI tandem mass spectrometry: specific binding of [$(\eta^6$ -p-cymene)RuCl₂(DMSO)] to stress-regulated proteins and to helicases. *J. Biol. Inorg. Chem.* **2007**, 12, 883-894.
139. Castellano-Castillo, M.; Kostrehunova, H.; Marini, V.; Kasparkova, J.; Sadler, P. J.; Malinge, J.-M.; Brabec, V. Binding of mismatch repair protein MutS to mispaired DNA adducts of intercalating ruthenium(II) arene complexes. *J. Biol. Inorg. Chem.* **2008**, 13, 993-999.
140. Dougan, S. J.; Habtemariam, A.; McHale, S. E.; Parsons, S.; Sadler, P. J. Catalytic organometallic anticancer complexes. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U.S.A* **2008**, 105, 11628-11633.
141. Wang, F.; Weidt, S.; Xu, J.; Mackay, C. L.; Langridge-Smith, P. R. R.; Sadler, P. J. Identification of Clusters from Reactions of Ruthenium Arene Anticancer Complex with Glutathione Using

Nanoscale Liquid Chromatography Fourier Transform Ion Cyclotron Mass Spectrometry Combined with ^{18}O -Labeling. *J. Am. Soc. Mass Spectrom.* **2008**, 19, 544-549.

142. Hu, W.; Luo, Q.; Ma, X.; Wu, K.; Liu, J.; Chen, Y.; Xiong, S.; Wang, J.; Sadler, P. J.; Wang, F. Arene Control over Thiolate to Sulfinatate Oxidation in Albumin by Organometallic Ruthenium Anticancer Complexes. *Chem. Eur. J.* **2009**, 15, 6586-6594.
143. Bugarcic, T.; Habtemariam, A.; Deeth, R. J.; Fabbiani, F. P. A.; Parsons, S.; Sadler, P. J. Ruthenium(II) Arene Anticancer Complexes with Redox-Active Diamine Ligands. *Inorg. Chem.* **2009**, 48, 9444-9453.
144. Renfrew, A. K.; Phillips, A. D.; Tapavicza, E.; Scopelliti, R.; Rothlisberger, U.; Dyson, P. J. Tuning the Efficacy of Ruthenium(II)-Arene (RAPTA) Antitumor Compounds with Fluorinated Arene Ligands. *Organometallics* **2009**, 28, 5061-5071.
145. van Rijt, S. H.; Peacock, A. F. A.; Sadler, P. J. Osmium Arenes: A New Class of Potential Anti-cancer Agents. In *Platinum and Other Heavy Metal Compounds in Cancer Chemotherapy Molecular Mechanisms and Clinical Applications*, Bonetti, A.; Leone, R.; Muggia, F. M.; Howell, S. B., Eds. Humana: Totowa, 2009; pp 73-79.
146. Peacock, A. F. A.; Habtemariam, A.; Fernandez, R.; Walland, V.; Fabbiani, F. P. A.; Parsons, S.; Aird, R. E.; Jodrell, D. I.; Sadler, P. J. Tuning the Reactivity of Osmium(II) and Ruthenium(II) Arene Complexes under Physiological Conditions. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **2006**, 128, 1739-1748.
147. Peacock, A. F. A.; Habtemariam, A.; Moggach, S. A.; Prescimone, A.; Parsons, S.; Sadler, P. J. Chloro half-sandwich osmium(II) complexes: influence of chelated N,N-ligands on hydrolysis, guanine binding, and cytotoxicity. *Inorg. Chem.* **2007**, 46, 4049-4059.
148. Peacock, A. F. A.; Parsons, S.; Sadler, P. J. Tuning the Hydrolytic Aqueous Chemistry of Osmium Arene Complexes with N,O-Chelating Ligands to Achieve Cancer Cell Cytotoxicity. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **2007**, 129, 3348-3357.

149. Peacock, A. F. A.; Melchart, M.; Deeth, R. J.; Habtemariam, A.; Parsons, S.; Sadler, P. J. Osmium(II) and ruthenium(II) arene maltolato complexes: rapid hydrolysis and nucleobase binding. *Chem. Eur. J.* **2007**, *13*, 2601-2613.
150. Kostrhunova, H.; Florian, J.; Novakova, O.; Peacock, A. F. A.; Sadler, P. J.; Brabec, V. DNA Interactions of Monofunctional Organometallic Osmium(II) Antitumor Complexes in Cell-Free Media. *J. Med. Chem.* **2008**, *51*, 3635-3643.
151. van Rijt, S. H.; Peacock, A. F. A.; Johnstone, R. D. L.; Parsons, S.; Sadler, P. J. Organometallic Osmium(II) Arene Anticancer Complexes Containing Picolinate Derivatives. *Inorg. Chem.* **2009**, *48*, 1753-1762.
152. Schmid, W. F.; John, R. O.; Arion, V. B.; Jakupec, M. A.; Keppler, B. K. Highly antiproliferative ruthenium(II) and osmium(II) arene complexes with paullone-derived ligands. *Organometallics* **2007**, *26*, 6643-6652, and references therein.
153. Dorcier, A.; Dyson, P. J.; Gossens, C.; Rothlisberger, U.; Scopelliti, R.; Tavernelli, I. Binding of Organometallic Ruthenium(II) and Osmium(II) Complexes to an Oligonucleotide: A Combined Mass Spectrometric and Theoretical Study. *Organometallics* **2005**, *24*, 2114-2123.
154. Dorcier, A.; Ang, W. H.; Bolaño, S.; Gonsalvi, L.; Juillerat-Jeannerat, L.; Laurenczy, G.; Peruzzini, M.; Phillips, A. D.; Zanolini, F.; Dyson, P. J. In Vitro Evaluation of Rhodium and Osmium RAPTA Analogues: The Case for Organometallic Anticancer Drugs Not Based on Ruthenium. *Organometallics* **2006**, *25*, 4090-4096.
155. Colangelo, D.; Ghiglia, A. L.; Ghezzi, A. R.; Ravera, M.; Rosenberg, E.; Spada, F.; Osella, D. Water-soluble benzoheterocycle triosmium clusters as potential inhibitors of telomerase enzyme. *J. Inorg. Biochem.* **2005**, *99*, 505-512.
156. Kim, J. H.; Lee, G. E.; Kim, S. W.; Chung, I. K. Identification of a quinoxaline derivative that is a potent telomerase inhibitor leading to cellular senescence of human cancer cells. *Biochem. J.* **2003**, *373*, 523-529.

157. Nervi, C.; Gobetto, R.; Milone, L.; Viale, A.; Rosenberg, E.; Spada, F.; Rokhsana, D.; Fiedler, J. Solution properties, electrochemical behavior and protein interactions of water soluble triosmium carbonyl clusters. *J. Organomet. Chem.* **2004**, 689, 1796-1805.
158. Rosenberg, E.; Spada, F.; Sugden, K.; Martin, B.; Gobetto, R.; Milone, L.; Viale, A. Selective covalent binding of a positively charged water-soluble benzoheterocycle triosmium cluster to single- and double-stranded DNA. *J. Organomet. Chem.* **2004**, 689, 4729-4738.
159. Chan, K. H.; Leong, W. K.; Jaouen, G.; Leclercq, L.; Top, S.; Vessi res, A. Organometallic cluster analogues of tamoxifen: Synthesis and biochemical assay. *J. Organomet. Chem.* **2006**, 691, 9-19.
160. Schaefer, S.; Sheldrick, W. S. Coligand tuning of the DNA binding properties of half-sandwich organometallic intercalators: influence of the polypyridyl (pp) and monodentate ligands (L = Cl, (NH₂)₂CS, (NMe₂)₂CS) on the DNA interaction of (η⁵-pentamethylcyclopentadienyl)iridium(III)-dipyridoquinoxaline and -dipyridophenazine complexes. *J. Organomet. Chem.* **2007**, 692, 1300-1309.
161. Scharwitz, M. A.; Ott, I.; Geldmacher, Y.; Gust, R.; Sheldrick, W. S. Cytotoxic half-sandwich rhodium(III) complexes: Polypyridyl ligand influence on their DNA binding properties and cellular uptake. *J. Organomet. Chem.* **2008**, 693, 2299-2309.
162. Lau, J. S.-Y.; Lee, P.-K.; Tsang, K. H.-K.; Ng, C. H.-C.; Lam, Y.-W.; Cheng, S.-H.; Lo, K. K.-W. Luminescent cyclometalated iridium(III) polypyridine indole complexes--synthesis, photophysics, electrochemistry, protein-binding properties, cytotoxicity, and cellular uptake. *Inorg. Chem.* **2009**, 48, 708-18.
163. Yu, M.; Zhao, Q.; Shi, L.; Li, F.; Zhou, Z.; Yang, H.; Yi, T.; Huang, C. Cationic iridium(III) complexes for phosphorescence staining in the cytoplasm of living cells. *Chem. Comm.* **2008**, 18, 2115-2117.

164. Weber, B.; Serafin, A.; Michie, J.; Van Rensburg, C. E. J.; Swarts, J. C.; Bohm, L. Cytotoxicity and cell death pathways invoked by two new rhodium-ferrocene complexes in benign and malignant prostatic cell lines. *Anticancer Res.* **2004**, 24, 763-70.
165. Falzone, N.; Bohm, L.; Swarts, J. C.; Van Rensburg, C. E. J. Radiosensitization of CHO cells by two novel rhodium complexes under oxic and hypoxic conditions. *Anticancer Res.* **2006**, 26, 147-152.
166. Zhang, J.; Vittal, J. J.; Henderson, W.; Wheaton, J. R.; Hall, I. H.; Hor, T. S. A.; Yan, Y.-K. Tricarbonylrhenium(I) complexes of phosphine-derivatized amines, amino acids and a model peptide: structures, solution behavior and cytotoxicity. *J. Organomet. Chem.* **2002**, 650, 123-132.
167. Wang, W.; Yan, Y. K.; Hor, T. S. A.; Vittal, J. J.; Wheaton, J. R.; Hall, I. H. Synthesis, X-ray structures, and cytotoxicity of rhenium(I) carbonyl 2-(dimethylamino)ethoxide complexes. *Polyhedron* **2002**, 21, 1991-1999.
168. Yan, Y.-K.; Cho, S. E.; Shaffer, K. A.; Rowell, J. E.; Barnes, B. J.; Hall, I. H. Cytotoxicity of rhenium(I) alkoxo and hydroxo carbonyl complexes in murine and human tumor cells. *Pharmazie* **2000**, 55, 307-313.
169. Ma, D.-L.; Che, C.-M.; Siu, F.-M.; Yang, M.; Wong, K.-Y. DNA Binding and Cytotoxicity of Ruthenium(II) and Rhenium(I) Complexes of 2-Amino-4-phenylamino-6-(2-pyridyl)-1,3,5-triazine. *Inorg. Chem.* **2007**, 46, 740-749.
170. Viola-Villegas, N.; Rabideau, A. E.; Cesnavicious, J.; Zubieta, J.; Doyle, R. P. Targeting the folate receptor (FR): imaging and cytotoxicity of ReI conjugates in FR-overexpressing cancer cells. *ChemMedChem* **2008**, 3, 1387-1394.
171. Viola-Villegas, N.; Rabideau, A. E.; Bartholom, M.; Zubieta, J.; Doyle, R. P. Targeting the Cubilin Receptor through the Vitamin B12 Uptake Pathway: Cytotoxicity and Mechanistic Insight through Fluorescent Re(I) Delivery. *J. Med. Chem.* **2009**, 52, 5253-5261.

172. Louie, M.-W.; Liu, H.-W.; Lam, M. H.-C.; Lau, T.-C.; Lo, K. K.-W. Novel Luminescent Tricarbonylrhenium(I) Polypyridine Tyramine-Derived Dipicolylamine Complexes as Sensors for Zinc(II) and Cadmium(II) Ions. *Organometallics* **2009**, 28, 4297-4307.
173. Lo, K. K.-W.; Louie, M.-W.; Sze, K.-S.; Lau, J. S.-Y. Rhenium(I) Polypyridine Biotin Isothiocyanate Complexes as the First Luminescent Biotinylation Reagents: Synthesis, Photophysical Properties, Biological Labeling, Cytotoxicity, and Imaging Studies. *Inorg. Chem.* **2008**, 47, 602-611.
174. Louie, M.-W.; Lam, M. H.-O.; Lo, K. K.-W. Luminescent Polypyridinerhenium(I) Bis-Biotin Complexes as Crosslinkers for Avidin. *Eur. J. Inorg. Chem.* **2009**, 28, 4265-4273.
175. Meggers, E. Exploring biologically relevant chemical space with metal complexes. *Curr. Opin. Chem.Biol.* **2007**, 11, 287-292.
176. Meggers, E.; Atilla-Gokcumen, G. E.; Bregman, H.; Maksimoska, J.; Mulcahy, S. P.; Pagano, N.; Williams, D. S. Exploring chemical space with organometallics: ruthenium complexes as protein kinase inhibitors. *Synlett* **2007**, 8, 1177-1189, and references therein.
177. Meggers, E. Targeting proteins with metal complexes. *Chem. Comm.* **2009**, 1001-1010, and references therein.
178. Zhang, L.; Carroll, P.; Meggers, E. Ruthenium Complexes as Protein Kinase Inhibitors. *Org. Lett.* **2004**, 6, 521-523, and references therein.
179. Xie, P.; Streu, C.; Qin, J.; Bregman, H.; Pagano, N.; Meggers, E.; Marmorstein, R. The Crystal Structure of BRAF in Complex with an Organoruthenium Inhibitor Reveals a Mechanism for Inhibition of an Active Form of BRAF Kinase. *Biochemistry* **2009**, 48, 5187-5198.
180. Anand, R.; Maksimoska, J.; Pagano, N.; Wong, E. Y.; Gimotty, P. A.; Phyllis, A.; Diamond, S. L.; Meggers, E.; Marmorstein, R. Toward the Development of a Potent and Selective Organoruthenium Mammalian Sterile 20 Kinase Inhibitor. *J. Med. Chem.* **2009**, 52, 1602-1611.

181. Huwe, A.; Mazitschek, R.; Giannis, A. Small molecules as inhibitors of cyclin-dependent kinases. *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* **2003**, 42, 2122-2138.
182. Williams, D. S.; Carroll, P. J.; Meggers, E. Platinum Complex as a Nanomolar Protein Kinase Inhibitor. *Inorg. Chem.* **2007**, 46, 2944-2946.
183. Wilbuer, A.; Vlecken, D. H.; Schmitz, D. J.; Kräling, K.; Harms, K.; Bagowski, C. P.; Meggers, E. Iridium Complex with Antiangiogenic Properties *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* **2010**, 49, 3839-3842.
184. Raubenheimer, H. G.; Cronje, S. Carbene complexes of gold: preparatio, medical application and bonding. *Chem. Soc. Rev.* **2008**, 37, 1998-2011.
185. Teyssot, M.-L.; Jarrousse, A.-S.; Manin, M.; Chevry, A.; Roche, S.; Norre, F.; Beaudoin, C.; Morel, L.; Boyer, D.; Mahiou, R.; Gautier, A. Metal-NHC complexes: a survey of anti-cancer properties. *Dalton Trans.* **2009**, 6894-6902.
186. Cetinkaya, B.; Cetinkaya, E.; Kucubay, H.; Durmaz, R. Antimicrobial activity of carbene complexes od rhodium(I) and ruthenium(II). *Arzneimittelforschung* **1996**, 46, 821-823.
187. Özdemir, I.; Denizci, A.; Öztürk, H. T.; Cetinkaya, B. Synthetic and antimicrobial studies on new gold(I) complexes of imidazolidin-2-ylidenes. *Appl. Organomet. Chem.* **2004**, 18, 318-322.
188. Melaiye, A.; Simons, R. S.; Milsted, A.; Pingitore, F.; Wesdemiotis, C.; Tessier, C. A.; Youngs, W. J. Formation of Water-Soluble Pincer Silver(I)–Carbene Complexes: A Novel Antimicrobial Agent. *J. Med. Chem.* **2004**, 47, 973-977.
189. Kascatan-Nebioglu, A.; Panzner, M. J.; Tessier, C. A.; Cannonb, C. L.; Youngs, W. J. N-Heterocyclic carbene–silver complexes: A new class of antibiotics. *Coord. Chem. Rev.* **2007**, 251, 884-895.
190. Melaiye, A.; Sun, Z.; Hindi, K.; Milsted, A.; Ely, D.; Reneker, D. H.; Tessier, C. A.; Youngs, W. J. Silver(I)–Imidazole Cyclophane gem-Diol Complexes Encapsulated by Electrospun Tecophilic Nanofibers: Formation of Nanosilver Particles and Antimicrobial Activity. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **2005**, 127, 2285-2291.

191. Kascatan-Nebioglu, A.; Melaiye, A.; Hindi, K.; Durmus, S.; Panzner, M. J.; Hogue, L. A.; Mallett, R. J.; Hovis, C. E.; Coughenour, M.; Crosby, S. D.; Milsted, A.; Ely, D. L.; Tessier, C. A.; Cannon, C. L.; Youngs, W. J. Synthesis from Caffeine of a Mixed N-Heterocyclic Carbene–Silver Acetate Complex Active against Resistant Respiratory Pathogens. *J. Med. Chem.* **2006**, 49, 6811-6818.
192. Hindi, K. M.; Siciliano, T. J.; Durmus, S.; Panzner, M. J.; Medvetz, D. A.; Reddy, D. V.; Hogue, L. A.; Hovis, C. E.; Hilliard, J. K.; Mallet, R. J.; Tessier, C. A.; Cannon, C. L.; Youngs, W. J. Synthesis, Stability, and Antimicrobial Studies of Electronically Tuned Silver Acetate N-Heterocyclic Carbenes. *J. Med. Chem.* **2008**, 51, 1577-1583.
193. Medvetz, D. A.; Hindi, K. M.; Panzner, M. J.; Ditto, A. J.; Yun, Y. H.; Youngs, W. J. Anticancer Activity of Ag(I) N-Heterocyclic Carbene Complexes Derived from 4,5-Dichloro-1H-Imidazole. *Met. Based Drugs* **2008**, 2008.
194. Barnard, P. J.; Baker, M. V.; Berners-Price, S. J.; Day, D. A. Mitochondrial permeability transition induced by dinuclear gold(I)–carbene complexes: potential new antimitochondrial antitumour agents. *J. Inorg. Biochem.* **2004**, 98, 1642-1647.
195. Rush, G. F.; Smith, P. F.; Hoke, G. D.; Alberts, D. W.; Snyder, R. M.; Mirabelli, C. K. The mechanism of acute cytotoxicity of triethylphosphine gold(I) complexes. II. Triethylphosphine gold chloride-induced alterations in mitochondrial function. *Toxicol. Appl. Pharmacol.* **1987**, 90, 391-400.
196. Ott, I. On the medicinal chemistry of gold complexes as anticancer drugs. *Coord. Chem. Rev.* **2009**, 253, 1670-1681.
197. Bindoli, A.; Rigobello, M. P.; Scutari, G.; Gabbiani, C.; Casinid, A.; Messori, L. Thioredoxin reductase: A target for gold compounds acting as potential anticancer drugs. *Coord. Chem. Rev.* **2009**, 253, 1692-1707.

198. Baker, M.; Barnard, P. J.; Berners-Price, S. J.; Brayshaw, S. K.; Hickey, J. L.; Skelton, B. W.; White, A. H. Cationic, linear Au(I) N-heterocyclic carbene complexes: synthesis, structure and anti-mitochondrial activity. *Dalton Trans.* **2006**, 3708-3715.
199. Hickey, J. L.; Ruhayel, R. A.; Barnard, P. J.; Baker, M. V.; Berners-Price, S. J.; Filipovska, A. Mitochondria-targeted chemotherapeutics: the rational design of gold(I) N-heterocyclic carbene complexes that are selectively toxic to cancer cells and target protein selenols in preference to thiols. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **2008**, 130, 12570-12571.
200. Jellicoe, M. M.; Nichols, S. J.; Callus, B. A.; Baker, M. V.; Barnard, P. J.; Berners-Price, S. J.; Whelan, J.; Yeoh, G. C.; Filipovska, A. Bioenergetic differences selectively sensitize tumorigenic liver progenitor cells to a new gold(I) compound. *Carcinogenesis* **2008**, 29, 1124-1133.
201. Krishnamurthy, D.; Karver, M. R.; Fiorillo, E.; Orru, V.; Stanford, S. M.; Bottini, N.; AM, A. M. B. Gold(I)-mediated inhibition of protein tyrosine phosphatases: a detailed in vitro and cellular study. *J. Med. Chem.* **2008**, 51, 4790-4795.
202. Lemke, J.; Pinto, A.; Niehoff, P.; Vasylyeva, V.; Metzler-Nolte, N. Synthesis, structural characterisation and anti-proliferative activity of NHC gold amino acid and peptide conjugates. *Dalton Trans.* **2009**, 7063-7070.
203. Lemke, J.; Metzler-Nolte, N. The Synthesis of Ruthenium and Rhodium Complexes with Functionalized N-Heterocyclic Carbenes and Their Use in Solid Phase Peptide Synthesis. *Eur. J. Inorg. Chem.* **2008**, 3359-3366.
204. Ray, S.; Mohan, R.; Singh, J. K.; Samantaray, M. K.; Shaikh, M. M.; Panda, D.; Ghosh, P. Anticancer and Antimicrobial Metallopharmaceutical Agents Based on Palladium, Gold, and Silver N-Heterocyclic Carbene Complexes. *J. Am. Chem. Soc.* **2007**, 129, 15042-15053.
205. Ray, S.; Asthana, J.; Tanski, J. M.; Shaikh, M. M.; Panda, D.; Ghosh, P. Design of nickel chelates of tetradentate N-heterocyclic carbenes with subdued cytotoxicity. *J. Organomet. Chem.* **2009**, 694, 2328-2335.

206. Teyssot, M.; Jarrousse, A.; Chevy, A.; Haze, A. D.; Beaudoin, C.; Manin, M.; Nolan, S. P.; Diez-Gonzalez, S.; Morel, L.; Gautier, A. Toxicity of copper(I)-NHC complexes against human tumor cells: induction of cell cycle arrest, apoptosis, and DNA cleavage. *Chem. Eur. J.* **2009**, 15, 314-318.
207. Skander, M.; Retailleau, P.; Bourrie, B.; Schio, L.; Mailliet, P.; Marinetti, A. N-Heterocyclic Carbene-Amine Pt(II) Complexes, a New Chemical Space for the Development of Platinum-Based Anticancer Drugs. *J. Med. Chem.* **2010**, 53, 2146-2154.
208. Ott, I.; Kircher, B.; Dembinski, R.; Gust, R. Alkyne hexacarbonyldicobalt complexes in medicinal chemistry and drug development. *Expert Opin. Ther. Patents* **2008**, 18, 327-337.
209. Jones, G. B.; Mathews, J. E. Tricarbonyl Arene Chromium (0) Based Antitumor Agents. *Bioorg. Med. Chem. Lett.* **1995**, 5, 93-96.
210. Patra, M.; Gasser, G.; Pinto, A.; Merz, K.; Ott, I.; Bandow, J. E.; Metzler-Nolte, N. Synthesis and Biological Evaluation of Chromium Bioorganometallics Based on the Antibiotic Platensimycin Lead Structure. *ChemMedChem* **2009**, 4, 1930-1938.
211. Reddy, V. D.; Dayal, D.; Cosenza, S. C.; Reddy, M. V. R.; Pearl Jr., W. C.; Adams, R. D. Glycal-ruthenium carbonyl clusters: Syntheses, characterization, and anticancer activity. *J. Organomet. Chem.* **2009**, 694, 959-967.
212. Niesel, J.; Pinto, A.; N'Dongo, H. W. P.; Merz, K.; Ott, I.; Gust, R.; Schatzschneider, U. Photoinduced CO release, cellular uptake and cytotoxicity of a tris(pyrazolyl)methane manganese tricarbonyl complex. *Chem. Commun.* **2008**, 1798-1800.
213. Neundorff, I.; Hoyer, J.; Splith, K.; Rennert, R.; N'Dongo, H. W. P.; Schatzschneider, U. Cymantrene conjugation modulates the intracellular distribution and induces high cytotoxicity of a cell-penetrating peptide. *Chem. Commun.* **2008**, 5604-5606.
214. Hyama, T.; Nishida, K.; Saimoto, H.; Kusano, Y.; Sakai, K.; Yamada, K. *Chem. Abstr.* **1987**, 107, 229145b.

215. Jung, M.; Kerr, D. E.; Senter, P. D. Bioorganometallic chemistry - synthesis and antitumor activity of cobalt carbonyl complexes. *Arch. Pharm. Pharm. Med. Chem.* **1997**, 330, 173-176.
216. Schmidt, K.; Jung, M.; Keilitz, R.; Schnurr, B.; Gust, R. Acetylenehexacarbonyldicobalt complexes, a novel class of antitumor drugs. *Inorg. Chim. Act.* **2000**, 306, 6-16.
217. Ott, I.; Schmidt, K.; Kircher, B.; Schumacher, P.; Wiglenda, T.; Gust, R. Antitumor-Active Cobalt-Alkyne Complexes Derived from Acetylsalicylic Acid: Studies on the Mode of Drug Action. *J. Med. Chem.* **2005**, 48, 622-629.
218. Coussens, L. M.; Werb, Z. Inflammation and cancer. *Nature* **2002**, 420, 860-867.
219. Ott, I.; Gust, R. *Biometals* **2005**, 18, 171-177.
220. Ott, I.; Kircher, B.; Bagowski, C. P.; Vlecken, D. H. W.; Ott, E. B.; Will, J.; Bendsdorf, K.; Sheldrick, W. S.; Gust, R. Modulation of the biological properties of aspirin by formation of a bioorganometallic derivative. *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* **2009**, 48, 1160-1163.
221. Sergeant, C. D.; Ott, I.; Sniady, A.; Meneni, S.; Gust, R.; Rheingold, A. L.; Dembinski, R. Metallo-nucleosides: synthesis and biological evaluation of hexacarbonyl dicobalt 5-alkynyl-2'-deoxyuridines. *Org. Biomol. Chem.* **2008**, 6, 73-80.
222. Ott, I.; Koch, T.; Shorafa, H.; Bai, Z.; Poeckel, D.; Steinhilber, D.; Gust, R. Synthesis, cytotoxicity, cellular uptake and influence on eicosanoid metabolism of cobalt-alkyne modified fructoses in comparison to auranofin and the cytotoxic COX inhibitor Co-ASS. *Org. Biomol. Chem.* **2005**, 3, 2282-2286.
223. Neukamm, M. A.; Pinto, A.; Metzler-Nolte, N. Synthesis and cytotoxicity of a cobaltcarbonyl-alkyne enkephalin bioconjugate. *Chem. Commun.* **2008**, 232-234.
224. Schlenk, M.; Ott, I.; Gust, R. Cobalt-Alkyne Complexes with Imidazoline Ligands as Estrogenic Carriers: Synthesis and Pharmacological Investigations. *J. Med. Chem.* **2008**, 51, 7318-7322.
225. Osella, D.; Galeotti, F.; Cavigiolo, G.; Nervi, C.; Hardcastle, K. I.; Vessieres, A.; Jaouen, G. The Hexacarbonyl(ethyne)dicobalt Unit: An Androgen Tag. *Helv. Chim. Acta* **2002**, 85, 2918-2925.

226. Top, S.; elHafa, H.; Vessieres, A.; Huche, M.; Vaissermann, J.; Jaouen, G. Novel estradiol derivatives labeled with Ru, W, and Co complexes. Influence on hormone-receptor affinity of several organometallic groups at the 17 alpha position. . *Chemistry* **2002**, 5241-5249.
227. Top, S.; Vessieres, A.; Pigeon, P.; Rager, M.-N.; Huche, M.; Salomon, E.; Cabestaing, C.; Vaissermann, J.; Jaouen, G. Selective estrogen-receptor modulators (SERMs) in the cyclopentadienylrhodium tricarbonyl series: Synthesis and biological behaviour. *ChemBioChem* **2004**, 5, 1104-1113.
228. Jaouen, G.; Top, S.; Vessieres, A.; Leclercq, G.; McGlinchey, M. J. The first organometallic selective estrogen receptor modulators (SERMs) and their relevance to breast cancer. *Curr. Med. Chem.* **2004**, 11, 2505-2517.
229. Franke, J. C.; Ploetz, M.; Prokop, A.; Geilen, C. C.; Schmalz, H.-G.; Eberle, J. New caspase-independent but ROS-dependent apoptosis pathways are targeted in melanoma cells by an iron-containing cytosine analogue. *Biochem. Pharmacol.* **2010**, 79, 575-586
230. Zhang, W.-Q.; Atkin, A. J.; Thatcher, R. J.; Whitwood, A. C.; Fairlamb, I. J. S.; Lynam, J. M. Diversity and design of metal-based carbon monoxide-releasing molecules (CO-RMs) in aqueous systems: revealing the essential trends. *Dalton Trans.* **2009**, 4351-4358.
231. Atkin, A. J.; Williams, S.; Sawle, P.; Motterlini, R.; Lynam, J. M.; Fairlamb, I. J. S. Mu₂-alkyne dicobalt(0)hexacarbonyl complexes as carbon monoxide-releasing molecules (CO-RMs): probing the release mechanism. *Dalton Trans.* **2009**, 3653-3656.
232. Alberto, R.; Motterlini, R. Chemistry and biological activities of CO-releasing molecules (CORMs) and transition metal complexes. *Dalton Trans.* **2007**, 1651-1660.
233. Johnson, T. R.; Mann, B. E.; Clark, J. E.; Foresti, R.; Green, C. J.; Motterlini, R. Metal Carbonyls: A New Class of Pharmaceuticals? *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* **2003**, 42, 3722-3729.

234. Salmain, M.; Vessieres, A.; Brossier, P.; Jaouen, G. Use of Fourier transform infrared spectroscopy for the simultaneous quantitative detection of metal carbonyl tracers suitable for multilabel immunoassays. *Anal. Biochem.* **1993**, 208, 117-120.
235. Fischer-Durand, N.; Salmain, M.; Rudolf, B.; Vessieres, A.; Zakrzewski, J.; Jaouen, G. Synthesis of Metal-Carbonyl Dendrimer Antibody Immunoconjugates: Towards a New Format for Carbonyl Metallo Immunoassay. *ChemBioChem* **2004**, 5, 519-525.
236. Schmitt, F.; Govindaswamy, P.; Suess-Fink, G.; Ang, W. H.; Dyson, P. J.; Juillerat-Jeanneret, L.; Therrien, B. Ruthenium Porphyrin Compounds for Photodynamic Therapy of Cancer. *J. Med. Chem.* **2008**, 51, 1811-1816, and references therein.
237. Schmitt, F.; Auzias, M.; Stepnicka, P.; Sei, Y.; Yamaguchi, K.; Suss-Fink, G.; Therrien, B.; Juillerat-Jeanneret, L. Sawhorse-type diruthenium tetracarbonyl complexes containing porphyrin-derived ligands as highly selective photosensitizers for female reproductive cancer cells. *J. Biol. Inorg. Chem.* **2009**, 14, 693-701.
238. Auzias, M.; Therrien, B.; Suess-Fink, G.; Stepnicka, P.; Ang, W. H.; Dyson, P. J. Ferrocenoyl Pyridine Arene Ruthenium Complexes with Anticancer Properties: Synthesis, Structure, Electrochemistry, and Cytotoxicity. *Inorg. Chem.* **2008**, 47, 578-583.
239. Mendoza-Ferri, M. G.; Hartinger, C. G.; Mendoza, M. A.; Groessl, M.; Egger, A. E.; Eichinger, R. E.; Mangrum, J. B.; Farrell, N. P.; Maruszak, M.; Bednarski, P. J.; Klein, F.; Jakupec, M. A.; Nazarov, A. A.; Severin, K.; Keppler, B. K. Transferring the Concept of Multinuclearity to Ruthenium Complexes for Improvement of Anticancer Activity. *J. Med. Chem.* **2009**, 52, 916-925.
240. Mendoza-Ferri, M. G.; Hartinger, C. G.; Nazarov, A. A.; Kandioller, W.; Severin, K.; Keppler, B. K. Modifying the structure of dinuclear ruthenium complexes with antitumor activity. *Appl. Organomet. Chem.* **2008**, 22, 326-332.

241. Mendoza-Ferri, M. G.; Hartinger, C. G.; Eichinger, R. E.; Stolyarova, N.; Severin, K.; Jakupec, M. A.; Nazarov, A. A.; Keppler, B. K. Influence of the Spacer Length on the in Vitro Anticancer Activity of Dinuclear Ruthenium-Arene Compounds. *Organometallics* **2008**, 27, 2405-2407.
242. Therrien, B.; Suess-Fink, G.; Govindaswamy, P.; Renfrew, A. K.; Dyson, P. J. The "complex-in-a-complex" cations [(acac)₂MRu₆-(p-iPrC₆H₄Me)₆(tpt)₂(dhbq)₃]⁶⁺: a trojan horse for cancer cells. *Angew. Chem. Int. Ed.* **2008**, 47, 3773-3776.
243. Therrien, B. Arene Ruthenium Cages: Boxes Full of Surprises. *Eur. J. Inorg. Chem.* **2009**, 17, 2445-2453, and references therein.
244. Magennis, S. W.; Habtemariam, A.; Novakova, O.; Henry, J. B.; Meier, S.; Parsons, S.; Oswald, I. D. H.; Brabec, V.; Sadler, P. J. Dual Triggering of DNA Binding and Fluorescence via Photoactivation of a Dinuclear Ruthenium(II) Arene Complex. *Inorg. Chem.* **2007**, 46, 5059-5068.